The Nation

NEW YORK, THURSDAY, JANUARY 15, 1914.

The Week

We are loath to credit the statement, although it appears in the Progressive Chicago *Evening Post*, that Gov. Johnson of California has been forced to reconsider his decision to retire from politics because of failing health, on account of the upheaval the announcement caused in the ranks of the California Progressives, "with several party leaders anxious to fill Mr. Johnson's shoes." He finally decided to remain in politics, we read, "to save the Progressive State machine, as it was popularly understood," but has only now let it be known which office he will try for. As he has chosen the Governorship again, this leaves the Senatorship the prey of what we should have to call Progressive politicians, if there were or could be such a thing. They manage these things much better in Kansas, where a few Progressives who were unable to attend a meeting called to consider the question of candidates for Governor and Senator, simply endorsed the candidacy of Victor Murdock and Henry Allen for any office, State or national, for which they might run. The heart-burnings in California are duplicated in Massachusetts, where the six Progressives who made the election of a Republican Speaker possible are suffering verbal discipline by Charles Sumner Bird and others. Perhaps this bitterness is increased by the fact that only the refusal of three Democrats to vote for the Progressive candidate prevented his election on the first ballot.

In a letter to the New York *Herald* no less an authority than Capt. H. C. McClellan, of the Revenue Cutter Service, retired, now superintending the construction of lifeboats and apparatus for the Life-Saving Service, denounces in severe terms the provision of the Seamen's bill requiring passenger vessels to carry "two able seamen" for each lifeboat. Shipowners and experts at the London Conference have already pointed out that this provision is doubly vicious—it lays an unreasonable burden upon commerce, and it utterly fails as a measure of safety. In recognizing only able seamen as boatmen, it overlooks the fact that these men may never have had occasion to go into a boat, and may be utterly incompetent oarsmen. In excluding stewards and hands below decks from the boats, it disregards the fact that they are frequently the best of oarsmen, who have proved their superiority in actual competition. The test of boatmen should be a practical demonstration before the inspectors, and, as Capt. McClellan recommends, the bill should be modified with this end in view. This would also relieve the shipowners. As the bill stands, great liners with fifty or more boats will have to carry a force of deck seamen with virtually nothing to do but wait for some marine disaster. Mr. Robert Dollar vouches for the statement that "it would be an utter impossibility to get seamen enough of three years' experience to man the boats." To permit the use of qualified stewards would be only just. Despite certain merits of the bill, such faults as this go far to justify the opinion expressed in a letter which we print to-day, from Prof. Herbert C. Sadler, of the University of Michigan, that it is a tissue of contradictions and special legislation.

Ten of the twelve States whose Legislatures meet this year are to be objects of effort by the National Child Labor Committee to improve the laws relating to that subject. No one of the ten has the eight-hour law for all workers under sixteen, and three, Georgia, Maryland, and Virginia, allow children under sixteen to work at night. Georgia is also in agreement with South Carolina and Mississippi in allowing children under fourteen to work in factories; in Georgia the age limit is as low as ten years, and even this is not enforced. Stricter inspection is needed in more than one State, and the Committee is urging a State Bureau of Factory Inspection in Georgia, Louisiana, and Mississippi. In a few States the laws are weakened by exemptions, as in New Jersey, which enforces a fourteen-year limit for factories only, and permits children of any age to be employed in other pursuits during the day out of school hours. Upon these exemptions the Committee is severe, but it is in reference to them that impartial observers may have two opinions. Much depends upon local conditions. Moreover, one of the larger educational movements of the day is vocational training, which often takes the form of combining teaching with practice.

The snarl in the administration of the Mothers' Pension law in Massachusetts seems a flat contradiction of the main claim made for the bill—that it would put a new leaven into local charity. At its passage there was hot debate whether its aid should be distributed through local overseers of the poor or through special appointees. It was asserted that the appointees would be sociological experts, fully conversant with the theory and methods of poor relief. On the other hand, it was felt that to put it in the hands of the regular overseers would educate each community into a gradual revolution of its attitude towards the destitute. It would learn to help them as a matter of public policy. Yet the overseers have imbibed so little of this "broad public spirit" that the private sources they once represented are all dried up. In plain violation of the law's provision against State aid for less than one year, they are clamoring for funds in temporary cases—as when a husband goes to jail for six months, leaving his family in want. The merits of the case are clear, for the law was not meant to supersede, but to supplement, existing relief agencies. The Massachusetts press is doubtless justified in its hope that the local officials will see the light; but meanwhile the situation is of interest to other States, where the chief opposition to mothers' pensions comes from private or organized charities.

The Pittsburgh Morals Efficiency Commission has found in eight months' work the basis for recommending a potpourri of reforms—the censorship of motion pictures, the sterilization of criminals, the inspection of employment bureaus, a minimum wage, and the use of schools as social centres. Chief interest, however, will attach to its cham-

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pionship of eugenic marriage legislation, especially in the light of considerations joined with it. The one most potent weapon in the reduction of vice the Commission believes to be early marriages, to encourage which it emphasizes good housing, cheaper living, and even vocational education, as permitting the easy conversion of youth into self-responsible, wage-earning manhood. If it can reconcile "eugenics" legislation with this principle of early marriage, the Commission will have done much for the enlightenment of such bodies as the Wisconsin Legislature. The most vicious aspect of such laws as that now meeting general condemnation in Wisconsin, and driving hundreds of couples across the border, is that they place artificial barriers before the very contract which fosters all the virtues of family life, from thrift up. It is the duty of lawmakers to recognize the old discovery new made by the Pittsburgh Commission—that marriage itself is a force unrivalled in making for social purity. This is not saying that safeguards of somewhat the character of those aimed at in the Wisconsin and other laws are necessarily in conflict with this principle; but the matter is one to be approached with the utmost caution.

We believe that the right sort of sex education is greatly needed. When we come to the specific definition of what is the right sort, or of how it is to be given, we find ourselves less inclined to speak dogmatically. Mrs. Young seems satisfied that sex hygiene has made a place for itself of acceptable value in high-school instruction, but she holds in abeyance her opinion as to its place in the primary schools. —[Chicago Evening Post.

An honest statement of a problem on which there is a vast amount of loose and disingenuous chatter. Out of the laboring mountains of talk not even a respectably sized mouse of concrete suggestion emerges. Just what of sex knowledge are you going to impart to the child, and at what age? What answer will you give the child on specific questions that he is always asking? At what age are the lessons of elementary biology that he has been studying in plant life to be brought home to him? Just what kind of ignorance is it the object of sex education to remove? How ignorant in reality is the child of the things he is assumed not to know? How derelict have the schools been hitherto in dealing with the problem to the extent that schools can be expected to deal with it? A definite statement on this subject from educators who have given their minds to the subject would be welcome. If in the interests of the child we have decided to abandon our supposedly prevailing reticence, let us be thorough about it. Let the honest facts be discussed instead of burying them under euphonious and vague terms like "sex hygiene."

Mrs. Ella Flagg Young favors instruction in sex hygiene in the high schools. She is in doubt as to the elementary schools. The question thus resolves itself into one concerned not with children at all, but with adolescents. But if it is with boys and girls of fourteen we must deal, the problem takes on a much simpler aspect. What "education" is necessary for children of this age that could not be conveyed in a single half-hour's talk on the subject of physical cleanliness, on the respect the individual owes to his body, and on the social implications of the violation of the laws of right living? One could cite the case of intelligent school principals twenty years ago or more, long before sex hygiene got into the headlines, who now and then gathered their boys into general assembly just for such a brief word of caution and appeal. A mere quarter of an hour twice a semester by the head of the school or the school physician would probably meet the requirements of the situation.

Canada's established reputation for enlightened treatment of the Indians can but gain from a departmental report showing them to be increasing at the rate of 2,000 a year. In 1912 there were 104,956, while 1913 closes with 106,490. Nearly all of them live in good dwellings; they have 326 schools, enrolling 11,144 pupils; while in spite of their supposed susceptibility to disease, the death-rate has been cut to 21 per thousand in the most populous communities. They earn wages amounting to $6,000,000 yearly, and cultivate 60,000 acres. "Industrious and contented," says the Montreal *Gazette*, "they compare favorably with the Dominion's other residents." In their prosperous absorption into civilization is a constant proof of the wisdom of Canada's policy of letting them shift for themselves, within certain protective regulations. Their present estate would certainly compare favorably with that of the tribes once confined so closely by the strict American reservation system. Of this, the merit was to protect the Indian while it educated him; but it also treated him as irresponsible, and cut him off from actual contact with civilization.

A pathetic personal interest, rather than political importance, attaches to the announcement that Joseph Chamberlain will not again accept election to Parliament. Chosen to this one, he has never been able to take his seat, though he dragged his broken frame to the Speaker's desk in order to sign—or, rather, pitifully to make his mark upon —the roll. It has long been evident that his public carecr was closed by the cruel physical disabling which fell upon him; and now his definite retirement will be taken merely as one sign more that his political battles are over. In the spectacle of so strong and masterful a man compelled to spend his last years in gray and hopeless invalidism, there is a theme for a tragic poet.

On the same day that Mr. Chamberlain announced his retirement from public life, another statement was issued, of a quite routine character, but having a close relation to the leading feature in the last phase of Mr. Chamberlain's public career. The returns of the British Board of Trade for the year 1913 show that the exports of the United Kingdom for the year increased by about $180,000,000 above 1912, and imports by $120,000,000, an increase in the entire foreign trade of $300,000,000. The aggregate of that trade, accordingly, was somewhat above seven billions of dollars, the exports being $3,200,000,000 and the imports $3,800,000,000. Mr. Chamberlain launched his "tariff reform" campaign in 1903; the total foreign trade in that year was slightly more than four billion dollars, and in the ten years that have since passed it has grown to the tremendous figure of seven billions recorded in the figures just published. And exports have increased at a decidedly more rapid rate than imports. In 1903, they were less than a billion and a half; ten years later, they are nearly three billions and a quarter. This great growth, both in exports and imports, is partly to be accounted for by the world-wide rise of prices; yet this goes com-

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paratively but a small way towards explaining it. There has been, ever since Mr. Chamberlain began his protectionist crusade, a steady and enormous growth of British foreign trade; yet the very centre of his attack rested on his confident assertion that the growth of the foreign trade of England was bound to come to an end if she persisted in her free-trade policy.

The London "verdict" which by compromise convicted Edwin Drood's uncle of manslaughter, coupling a plea for mercy with a recommendation for judicial severity, partook of Dickens's own satiric hostility to legal inconsistencies. "Nothing serious in life!" exclaimed Mr. Snitchey. "What do you call law?" "The one great principle of the English law," says "Bleak House," "is to make business for itself." Most of Dickens's lawyers, from Dodson and Fogg down, are what we should call shysters. The face of Quilp's attorney—low forehead, a wen-like nose, deep red hair—was "one of nature's beacons, warning off those who navigated the shoals and breakers of the world, from that dangerous strait, the Law." But if the youth who had been a reporter in Doctors' Commons knew of what he wrote, it was of conditions that were already beginning to dissolve. Shaw, Chesterton, and all the eminent Drood "jury" are witnesses that the spirit of ridicule for any social fault persists in England; but in legal procedure, at least, it has an insubstantial target. Whether this spirit did more in mending matters than the downright assaults of men like Bentham, is scarcely debatable. Much as didacticism in literature is out of fashion, the writings of men like Mr. Alger and Judge Swann might furnish our own fiction a hint. While not bad to the Dickensian degree, some of our court procedure would still justify Mr. Snitchey's further retort to the man who thought law a joke: "If you ever went into it, you would change your mind."

The entire citizen militia of the Transvaal has been called out because of threatened disorders arising from a general railway strike. South Africa is a remote spot, and in this country we have been catching the merest echoes of a bitter labor warfare which began last year and seems to have been only temporarily allayed. In the recent mine strike in the Rand, the situation approached that of civil war. In one riot a hundred lives are said to have been lost. As a result of that conflict the mine owners were made to recognize the existence of intolerable conditions under which the gold-diggers carried on their work. One of the main objects of the present sojourn of Col. Gorgas in South Africa is to combat the ravages of disease among the Rand workers. The railway strike is wider in its scope. It has affected both of the former Boer republics and may easily extend to the whole of United South Africa. Time brings its revenges when the national militia, largely made up of men of Boer descent, is called upon to maintain order against the industrial and railway workers, of whom the white element is predominantly of British origin.

The acquittal by the court-martial of Col. von Reuter and Lieut. Schad, the Zabern military tyrants, is a grievous thing and one that will react upon the German army throughout the Empire. It illustrates clearly how firmly militarism is in the saddle and the army clique stands by its own. To judge from the testimony cabled to the American newspapers, the guilt of these officers seemed beyond question; indeed, Col. von Reuter openly avowed his deeds and assumed the responsibility therefor. In his speech to the Reichstag at the time of its censure of him, the Chancellor went out of his way to emphasize his regret that trouble-makers were seeking to cause a break between the army and the people by exploitation of the happenings at Zabern. But this decision of the court-martial will do that very thing, and to a tremendous degree; for it makes it clear that the army holds itself above all civilian law and entitled to arrest civilians, sabre them, break open the doors of their houses, put them in jail for merely laughing at the military, and generally to exercise complete autocratic power. It is inconceivable that the German people as a whole will submit to anything of this kind. The verdict will also intensify the difficulties of the Chancellor, whose position is shaky enough already.

The Terrible Turk seems determined to be the *enfant terrible* of the Balkans. Constantinople's reported intentions to equip herself with a full-sized Dreadnought for the recovery of the Ægean Islands has put Greek nerves on edge. Now comes active Turkish intervention in Albania, the newest of the world's kingdoms. Albania makes a very attractive kingdom on paper, but there is to be no particular rush among cadets of Europe's royal houses to assume sovereignty over a nation of excellent marksmen from behind a rock, and chronically opposed to the payment of taxes. Turkey no doubt counts upon the resistance of the Mohammedan majority in Albania to any Christian prince whom the Powers may impose on them. This mountain-land, which for long was the bane of its Turkish masters, seems likely to prove a thorn in the side of the Powers who brought the new kingdom into being, and particularly of Austria. There is no likelihood that the Ottoman will recover anything of the territory he has lost. But there must be sweet revenge for Turkey in the fearful price which her conquerors have already paid for their prize, and seem likely to pay.

Greece's new Ambassador to the United States is Agamemnon Schliemann, a name which cuts across the boundaries of race and time. The son of the distinguished scholar who wrote the modern epic of Troy and Mycenæ with his spade would seem to be peculiarly qualified to act as representative of the newer Greece which as a result of the Balkan wars is stretching out towards the boundaries of ancient Hellas. His qualifications do not end there, for the new Ambassador is the son of an American citizen. The elder Schliemann was in California at the height of the gold rush, was naturalized, and never gave up his rights. This is a fascinatingly complex situation, which at the same time calls up and refutes much that has been said about the "mongrel" character of the modern Greek people. It may be that little of the blood of the men who fought at Salamis and Arbela runs in the veins of the modern Greeks, who are most frequently described as a mixture of Slav and Saracen elements. Yet there is such a thing as spiritual heritage, and it finds expression in statesmen of the Venizelos type, to whom the glories of twenty-five hundred years ago are both an ideal and a fulcrum for moving popular sentiment towards the attainment of that ideal.

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THE GOVERNMENT AND THE NEW HAVEN.

The announcement, Saturday afternoon, of an agreement between the New York, New Haven & Hartford Railroad Company and the Government is primarily important as another evidence that the peaceful and amicable enforcement of the Anti-Trust law is the order of the day. It is also of particular interest because, in the case of an exceedingly complicated combination of properties subject to the law, the terms of the agreement prove, first, the willingness of the corporation to conform to the principle of that law; secondly, the Government's disposition to take a reasonable attitude in regard to solving the practical difficulties of the proposed dismemberment; and thirdly, the belief of the railway's officers that such difficulties can be surmounted.

A year ago, it is probable that a good part of the community would have questioned the likelihood of any of these three results. The New Haven's attitude then was, to fight to the last ditch against any surrender to the law. This attitude has been voluntarily reversed. It was then assumed in many quarters that the Government would impose conditions—as to instantaneous disposal, on an unwilling market, of holdings of stock in other corporations—which would involve a ruinous financial loss. But the chairman of the New Haven now declares, in outlining the plan of settlement, that the Attorney-General is "broadminded in considering the business and commercial welfare of New England and of the railroads in New England"; that he "recognizes the obligations incumbent upon the directors to conserve, just as far as circumstances will permit, the full value of all of the properties," and that, "so far as the department properly may, it will help the directors to discharge their obligations in protecting the stockholders in working out the details of the plan for the various properties."

This means that abundant time will be allowed for the necessary liquidation. And as for the very prevalent idea of a year ago, that such dismemberment would inevitably injure the property itself, the New Haven's chief executive further states that, despite the practical difficulties of the problem, the properties eventually will, "without doubt, be made not only good properties to serve the public, but in due time better properties for returning an income to the owners of the securities."

It would be difficult to exaggerate the significance of the episode, in the light of these three considerations. The settlement need not even be described as a compromise, as the Government's "meeting the company half-way." It is an absolute agreement, by both Government and company, on the principle of the law, on the practicability of enforcing it, and on the application, in such enforcement, of the "rule of reason" already vindicated by the United States Supreme Court. We imagine that, in the New Haven's case, it will not be many years before the financial community itself will look back at the Government's intervention in the company's affairs as having saved the enterprise from a disastrous future. For such an outcome was clearly foreshadowed, if the policy were to be continued whereby the company, in the nine years between 1903 and 1912, had increased its own capitalization from $93,000,000 to $417,000,000; of which increase, as the Interstate Commission showed, $204,000,000 "had been expended in operations outside its railroad sphere."

We have indicated that the paramount teaching of the incident is the fact that the peaceable enforcement of the law, in other quarters where its application has been doubted or resisted, is now reasonably assured. Pending such general readjustment, there is, indeed, no reason why the Administration should relax its firm insistence on obedience to the law, or should abandon such active measures as may in any single case be necessary to insure obedience. But the events of the past few weeks no less positively teach, in our opinion, that the era of peaceable settlement is not the time for piling up new and drastic remedial legislation, or for throwing fresh agitation into the field of American finance, at the moment when these sufficiently delicate problems of undoing the errors of the past are patiently working out.

There are, no doubt, some questions of company legislation which remain for early consideration, as a natural supplement to what has already been accomplished. These questions are pretty well understood, and are purely constructive in their nature. Even they will need ample time for proper consideration—notably the matter of regulation of security issues of the railways. But legislation which involves the further great unsettlement of existing financial institutions, and especially legislation which infers the introduction of new and debatable experiments, can safely wait until time has worked out the process, now under way, of bringing back our financial methods to the sound and normal basis which existed before the rash undertakings of a dozen years ago.

The growing spirit of confidence, in the business community at large, has had its principal origin in the belief and hope that a period of rest from the political uncertainties of the past few years is now at hand. That this confidence should be maintained is of the highest necessity, not only to the successful solution of the problems relating to the dismembering of illegal combinations, but to the successful application of the two great laws which the Wilson Administration has already placed upon the statute books.

FREE SPEECH AND PROFESSORS.

PHILADELPHIA, January 6.—Trustees of the University of Pennsylvania will undertake at a meeting on Monday, it is said, to establish boundaries within which certain members of the faculty will be required to restrain themselves in their public utterances.

Whether anticipation of this particular situation had anything to do with the action taken by the American Political Science Association the other day in regard to professorial freedom, we are not in a position to say. But there occurs, every few years, some case of the kind which attracts national attention; and the Association was therefore, in our judgment, well advised in appointing a committee to report on the broad question of the situation in American educational institutions as to "liberty of thought, freedom of speech, and security of tenure by teachers of political science." That the report of this committee will wholly remove the trouble is too much to expect; but there is every reason to hope that it will serve to stamp upon the minds of university authorities a better knowledge and a fuller recognition of the demands of academic freedom and the grounds on which those demands are justified.

In the comprehension of the subject, both by university authorities and by the public generally, there has been a

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great advance within the past twenty years. There was a time when many persons of intelligence and standing, and in particular many college trustees, were content with saying that to dismiss a professor for the enunciation of unwelcome opinions was not a denial of his right to free speech, but only of his right to the institution's money. One sees this notion still cropping up occasionally, but it has quite lost its vogue. The question is not an abstract question of the legal right of free speech; it is a question of the status and character of the university professor. It is the business of the professor to teach the truth, as he has come to see it through his study of the subject he is discussing. It is an indispensable part of the validity and integrity of his work that he shall feel this to be his duty. To tell him that if in the performance of this duty he runs counter to the opinions or desires of the holders of the purse-strings he will be discharged, is to penalize honesty and independence, to reward servility and cowardice. What the upholders of academic freedom maintain, in so far as it relates to the "rights" of the professor at all, is his right to membership in an honorable profession. To say that he can hold his place only on condition of suppressing judgments that are not to his paymasters' liking would be to degrade the professorate in much the same way as the judiciary would be degraded under a régime in which the recall was not merely permissible, but was habitually resorted to whenever a judge's decision was not to the popular taste.

But the principle of academic freedom rests on broader grounds than the personal rights of professors. The question touches deeply the whole spirit of university life; even more for the sake of the students than for that of the professors the intellectual integrity and independence of the professorate must be upheld. Moreover, the influence of university professors, taken as a whole, is one of the powerful factors in the moulding of public opinion. It is safe to say that, in this respect, it stands, or at least is quite capable of standing, next in power to the newspaper press. The influence is less direct, but it is more steady and continuous; it is less perceptible, but it has a way of filtering out, through successive strata of the population, until it leavens a great lump. And this influence is, on the whole, beneficial, tending to the preservation of sane and wise views of political issues. No doubt there are among the professorial body a certain number of foolish extremists, a certain number of shallow and sensational ranters. No doubt, also, there are a certain number of strong men who, from the point of view of the conservative, are sadly in error. But it must be plain upon a very little reflection that in order that the opinions of the sober and conservative shall have weight with the nation, it is indispensable that the heterodox and daring shall have the right to speak as they think, and to retain their chairs. Let it be known that nobody can keep a university professorship unless he conforms to a given code of opinion, and any appeal to university opinion must necessarily become a farce. There is a point, of course, beyond which freedom becomes pure license and where, for obvious ethical reasons, the trustees of an institution must intervene. All things human are in a way a matter of compromise. But in practice the point of unquestionable license is seldom reached, and it is safer to err on the side of liberty.

As for the actual status and attitude of professors of economics and political science in this country at the present time, we believe that it is, on the whole, very nearly all that can be desired from this standpoint. Of this, Columbia University is a striking example. We have taken occasion to find fault with its government in regard to a different aspect of the professor's freedom—the question of teaching methods and of the free play of personality. But as to freedom of opinion, and particularly in the field of economic and political science, it would be difficult to find any fault. The president of Columbia is one of the leading conservatives of the country, and the trustees are doubtless in the main of his way of thinking. Yet almost every professor in those departments is a good deal of a radical, and several of them have been among the earliest champions of what a few years ago were generally regarded as very advanced radical policies. None of them is in the slightest danger of molestation. And a similar condition exists in many of our leading universities. So far from being fortresses of capitalism, as many people imagine—and as perhaps they were, to some extent, a quarter of a century ago—the American universities have been distinctly responsible for a considerable part of the impetus behind the "progressive" movement which has come to the front in recent years. The reason for the action of the Political Science Association is to be found less in existing conditions as a whole than in the evil that shows itself here and there, and in the essential importance of asserting a principle which is always in more or less danger of being lost sight of.

PROFIT-SHARING OR LARGESSE?

Referring to the announced distribution of $10,000,000 out of the prospective profits for the year 1914 to the wage-earning employees of his company, Mr. Henry Ford has stated that he regards it as not at all an act of charity, but simply a fair division of the net returns of the business. Upon the abstract question there is room for a great deal of pretty disputation. But the practical issue which this extraordinary distribution presents relates not to the moral quality, or the social quality, of the act, but to its bearing on the subject of profit-sharing in general. Call it fair division or call it largesse, as you will; the question is whether the act of the Ford Motor Company is calculated to promote or to discourage the spread of the profit-sharing plan in the industrial world.

Without trying to answer this question we may note some of the factors that enter into the case. One of these is the psychological element involved in the immediate spectacle. In the past few days profit-sharing has been discussed by thousands of persons who until then had scarcely heard of the term. Among them are probably many employers who are thinking of it, if not as a practical probability, at least as something more than a mere academic fad. Some of these may go so far as to inquire into the history of the subject in France, in England, in Germany, in this country, and look up books or Government reports relating to it.

But while the mere stirring up of interest is calculated to promote the spread of the profit-sharing idea, there is much in the particular exemplification that is calculated to have the opposite effect. Anything comparable to

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the bounties which are to be given by the Ford Company is so obviously out of the question in general as to give fresh point to one of the standard objections raised against the profit-sharing plan. An article in a recent volume of the *Economic Review*, by a thoroughly friendly writer, puts this objection to the schemes very clearly:

> They would, if generally adopted, introduce a great inequality in the remuneration of one and the same grade of labor. The inequality, in fact, would be exactly proportioned to the inequality of the realized profits of the various firms employing that grade of labor. . . . Now, *inequality* of remuneration is very soon felt to be *insecurity*, since the weekly wage comes to be taken as a minimum, and the standard remuneration (*i. e.*, the sum which a man will complain of if he does not get) is the wage plus the average share of profit in the industry. For this reason the trade unions are not as unreasonable as they might appear to be when they choose to work for a rise of wages throughout the industry rather than for a state of things in which each firm should give its employees a share of the profits.

In the case in hand, the inequality here referred to is exhibited on a scale far beyond anything that this writer could have had in mind; and accordingly the very plethora of the success which the profit-sharing plan seems to have at its disposal in the Ford plant is the cause of its serving to accentuate not the feasibility, but a conspicuous difficulty, of that plan. As actually pursued in the many establishments which have successfully tried it, this difficulty has been hypothetical rather than real. Thus Mr. T. C. Taylor, who is one of the most ardent advocates of the plan in England, and whose firm has practiced it upon a very just plan for thirty years, says: "In twenty years the number of our workers has increased from 600 to 1,400, and we have apportioned as the workers' share near £100,000." This is pleasant, but it means an average distribution of only about $25 a year to each worker. Taking all the profit-sharing enterprises in the United Kingdom on which data could be obtained, the Labor Department of the Board of Trade finds that the average amount thus falling to the working people forms an addition of 5½ per cent. to their wages—which is not very different from the experience of Mr. Taylor's firm. Additions ranging all the way from nothing to this amount, or even several times this amount, would constitute no seriously disturbing inequality. It is precisely in such a highly exceptional case as that of the Ford Company that the adoption of the plan brings in a discouraging factor which may more than counterbalance any stimulus that it furnishes to the profit-sharing system.

In favor of that system, in one or another of its forms, a great deal is to be said. Its central recommendation, both from the narrowly economic and from the human standpoint, is its capacity for infusing into the ranks of the workers the feeling that they have a personal stake in the prosperity of the enterprise for which they are laboring. In that modification of the profit-sharing idea which is embodied in the Taylor method of "scientific management," the case is somewhat different, for there the stake of each worker is expressly measured by the quantity of his own individual output. But whatever particular form it may take, the idea of introducing, wherever it is practicable, such a relation between employer and employed as makes for a keener interest in his work on the part of the worker, and a more human interest in the worker on the part of the employer, is one that is worthy of encouragement. If the Detroit episode shall stimulate the study of the practical possibilities of profit-sharing, it will have been so far of good service to the country.

THE HARVARD-TECHNOLOGY MERGER.

The news that an alliance between Harvard University and the Institute of Technology has at last come to pass is striking chiefly by its unexpectedness. After the failure of the attempt of President Eliot and President Pritchett to amalgamate the institutions in 1904-05, and the receipt of the McKay millions by Harvard, it was supposed that the project was dead—as it was in the form in which they had urged it. Now their successors, Presidents Lowell and Maclaurin, have brought about a union which is in several aspects one of the most original and remarkable developments in our university evolution, if only because we may now see the extraordinary phenomenon of a student who has spent four years at the Institute receiving a Harvard degree as well as a Technology one. If we understand the terms of the merger—to which, happily, the Sherman Act does not apply—some of the Institute's students will hereafter be studying for two degrees in two different institutions, while some will be qualifying only for the Institute's degree, and all will be taught by a corps of professors holding rank in both institutions.

This is obviously the very opposite of what was planned during the years 1904 and 1905. The scheme which was then considered was the physical removal of the Institute to Harvard and its becoming in its entirety a college of Harvard, as Oxford and Cambridge have their numerous colleges with separate entities. It was hoped that near-by Tufts, too, would ally itself on similar terms, since President Eliot's idea was that Harvard would naturally develop upon English university lines. But the Technology alumni and faculty would have none of this, and a Supreme Court decision prohibiting the corporation from selling its land for these purposes came to their rescue. There followed the McKay bequest of $4,000,000 to Harvard, with promise of much more after the passing of certain lives, and so Harvard, lamenting as it did the growing up of two great engineering schools almost within sight of each other—the Technology is building superb new quarters on the Cambridge side of the Charles River basin—established in 1906 the Graduate School of Applied Science, with the idea that it should become for science what the Harvard Law School and Medical School are for their branches of learning.

In this there has been the completest disappointment. Harvard has to-day less than sixty graduate students of applied science, while the Technology has 250 graduates, or former students of other colleges, seeking its degrees. It is a pretty clear case that not means and able teachers alone can create a great school, and now Harvard wisely evacuates the whole field. Its fifteen professors of civil, mechanical, mining, electrical, and sanitary engineering go over to Technology, and Harvard by itself will offer no further instruction within its domain in these subjects. With the professors go the funds of the Lawrence Scientific School and about three-fifths of the McKay money, or about $60,000 a year—eventually it should approximate $250,000 a year—to be used, if the will is followed, for salaries, upkeep of

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buildings, and scholarships for meritorious students.

For President Maclaurin this is an extraordinary achievement; for slight concessions to Harvard he obtains great means for the Institute and leads in the movement to avoid needless duplication in institutions of learning. Moreover, in the five years of his presidency he has also obtained the new site and a magnificent group of educational buildings. More than that, he has accomplished the seemingly impossible: he induced the State of Massachusetts to vote $100,000 a year for ten years for the support of the Institute. He has still to obtain the money for dormitories, and he has yet to prove that he can develop a great educational leadership.

One regrettable feature there is. We learn from Boston that the Technology and Harvard faculties had but two days' warning, and were not officially consulted. This executive haste savors quite too much of some of our big business mergers, with their "vote first and discuss afterwards" policy. What does an American faculty exist for? It used to be held that a prime purpose was the discussion and formulation of large educational policies, such as are involved in a momentous move like this. But we are out of date. A faculty is now but a technical staff; our presidents are captains of industry. What would fifteen Munich professors say to being switched to Halle without their assent on two days' notice? But if that is unthinkable, it is at least possible to congratulate our college world upon a great and memorable advance, whatever the mistakes of the manner of accomplishment. Particularly, President Lowell deserves credit for willingness to face the fact of Harvard's non-success in the field of applied science.

IS AMERICAN VITALITY DECLINING?

The meeting of the National Conference on Race Betterment will doubtless direct attention once more to the question of the increase of American mortality in the higher age-groups. Mr. E. E. Rittenhouse, president of the newly formed Life Extension Institute, and other insurance authorities have for some years insisted on the gravity of the conditions. The outstanding fact, which nobody disputes and which is certainly very striking, is that while in ages below forty-five the rate of mortality is steadily diminishing, at about that age this tendency not only ceases but is reversed. The mortality in the ages from forty-five to fifty-four is somewhat higher now than it was in former times, and in the ages from fifty-five to sixty-four it is markedly higher. The conclusion drawn is that there is something about our way of life which grows worse instead of better from year to year. The advance of medical science and sanitary regulation has saved the lives of infants and of persons formerly carried off by infectious and zymotic diseases; but against this gain must be set an increase in the number of deaths among people of middle age.

In point of fact, however, the increase in the death-rate at the middle ages of life does not prove the deterioration alleged. We are not asserting that the conclusion is false, though we are inclined to think it so; but we do say it does not follow from the premises. A simple and extreme hypothetical case will suffice to show this. Suppose that, under a given state of things, out of every thousand persons taken at the age of twenty-five, ten died every year for the following forty years, so that at the age of forty-five eight hundred were living, and at the age of sixty-five, six hundred. Now imagine that through some advance in medical science every one of the persons who had formerly been carried off between the ages of twenty-five and forty-five had his life prolonged exactly twenty years, while the rest lived just as long as before. The consequence would be that among persons of the ages from twenty-five to forty-four the death-rate would be zero, while for the ages from forty-five to sixty-four the rate would be greatly increased above what it had been. At the age of forty-five, instead of 10 deaths among 800, a death-rate of 12½ per thousand, we should have 20 deaths among 1,000; and at the age of sixty-four there would be 20 instead of 10 deaths among the 600 survivors.

It is by no means improbable that what is thus grossly indicated on a magnified and impossible scale has in fact been going on in a degree sufficient to account for the actual statistics without the supposition of any increase of evil in our ways of life. Take the figures given in an article by Lewis I. Dublin, statistician of the Metropolitan Life Insurance Company, in the December number of the *American Journal of Public Health*. They relate to the whole of the registration States as constituted in the year 1900, and give a comparison of the mortality of various age-groups in that year with the mortality for the year 1911. Among females, singularly enough, the phenomenon we have been discussing does not present itself at all. Among males, the death-rate in the age-group forty-five to fifty-four advanced from 15.8 in 1900 to 16.1 in 1911. In the age-group from fifty-five to sixty-four it advanced from 28.9 to 30.9. It is almost exactly stating the case, therefore, for the entire group of twenty years, if we say that there was one more death annually among every thousand persons in the year 1911 than in the year 1900. Now, as the general death-rate in this country has been steadily declining as far back as the records go, it is certainly an extremely reasonable conjecture that this one additional death among a thousand persons is to be ascribed not to worse conditions destroying some lives which in the older time would have continued longer, but on the contrary to the survival for many years of some life less hardy than the average, which in the earlier days would have disappeared much sooner. Or rather, to carry the war into Africa, is it not probable that much more than this increase of one death was brought about in this latter way, and that the death-rate for the ages between forty-five and sixty-five would have increased more sharply than it has were it not for the actual improvement of conditions?

Into the statistics of mortality from the various degenerative diseases by which the conclusion that we have been questioning is supported, we cannot enter. We must content ourselves with saying that similar considerations cast doubt on the validity of the argument drawn from these statistics. But there is one point of signal importance to which we must draw attention. Among the causes that affect the death-rate in any given age-group is the composition of that group as regards occupation and economic conditions. It is quite possible that the increase in the number of deaths at the ages above forty-five may be due to a larger number of persons reaching these ages among the classes engaged in hard and life-shortening toil.

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The effect of increasing the usual duration of life in these classes would be to increase the death-rate at the middle ages of life; and, owing to the great number which such an improvement would affect, a very slight prolongation of life among them would be sufficient to make quite a perceptible change of this kind. So far from concluding, therefore, from the increased death-rate between fifty-five and sixty-five, that the conditions among the working classes are worse than they formerly were, it is at least a probable supposition that this phenomenon arises from the prolongation of life among the least-favored classes into ages which in former times they comparatively seldom reached.

INDUSTRIAL LABOR IN ART.

It is fitting that Pittsburgh figures in the brief list of cities where the sculptures of Constantin Meunier are to be exhibited. People familiar with steel-mills, foundries, mines, and manufactories should respond to an art that specializes in the materials of this industrial age. Meunier's Melting Steel, The Miners, The Smithy, Factory Work, Returning from the Pit, with his unfinished Monument to Labor, represent the heroic in industrial labor. In closest touch from his youth up with the mines and mills of his own Belgium, he has put the dramatic intensity of toil into a new setting. In the pleasure evoked by his work, a main element has been its novelty. That the industrial was synonymous with the ugly, that the æsthetic eye could look only with aversion upon the harsh lines of factories and the black clouds which their chimneys rolled against the sky, has been almost a convention. Yet into the tense groups about the pouring-ladle and the electric drill Meunier has put a vividness and a sympathy that make his sculptures popular wherever seen.

Unusualness of background and action does not alter the fact that Meunier's main claim to attention is not his tincture of iconoclasm, but an element as old as life itself—man laboring and overcoming. His work has suggested Millet more than any one else. Each strove to reflect human toil, and to convey a conception of the dignity of primitive labor. Largeness and serenity are keynotes of most of the productions of both. But in giving his types a touch of the august, Millet invoked the help of old traditions of the soil. The husbandman, in youth, is archetype of the earth's fruitful vigor; in age, of its patriarchal dignity. So far as toil has been the subject of treatment in any art, linking it to the earth whence it and man sprang together adds the poetizing touch. The harvester of Millet joins hands with Virgil and Theocritus, Boaz and Abraham. But Meunier puts in a transforming light toil that has been held brutalized. When the laborer went up to the city, he passed from the sweetness and grace of the fields to grubbing under man-made conditions. The change was like that of Ruskin's little plot of grass, beautiful in its surroundings till an iron railing made it ugly. At the present day, as no less than a century ago, the dignity of hard work is not in the mechanic, working amid clangor and competition and fret, but in the one whom Dr. Wakefield pronounced, after the priest, the noblest of men—the tiller. Just here come Meunier's sculptures to enlarge this dignity to the point of universality.

Such art has especially a function in helping a working age adjust itself to its newer conditions. The spirit behind the work of Meunier and his fellows is the healthy impulse to follow life into its ramifications, searching for new ways of giving it artistic treatment. It necessarily deals in the unconventional; but in the end it carries its message home. A part of its usefulness may be in showing that those who work at the forge, in the mine, at marble, bronze, or coal, no less than the hewers of wood and drawers of water, are dressing and keeping the wilderness; but it points the larger lesson that to cut off, in the division of mankind's pursuits, any considerable body from artistic idealization, is suicidal narrowness. An American philosopher once spoke of the world's rough and dirty work as necessary but ignoble employment to which it might be well, in time, to draft men turn by turn. The emergence of a Meunier from a coal-pit rebukes such utterances. His production can distil out a soul of goodness from the rankest tangle of modern steel and brick. The catholicity and democracy which they spell sustain the self-appreciation of burdened groups, while broadening their sympathies.

THE AMERICAN PHILOLOGICAL ASSOCIATION.

NEW YORK, January 4.

The forty-fifth annual meeting of the Association was held at Harvard University, December 29-31, in conjunction with the annual meeting of the Modern Language Association. It had been thought that the interruption of the joint meeting with the Archæological Institute of America, which had been the habit of the past eight or ten years, might interfere seriously with the attendance. Such fears, however, proved groundless; the attendance was uncommonly good.

Of the seven sessions, three were held with the Modern Language Association. Of these two were evening sessions, one of which was devoted to the annual address of the president of the American Philological Association, the other to the annual address of the president of the Modern Language Association. The former, Professor Harold North Fowler, of the Western Reserve University, dealt with "The Present and the Future of Classical Studies in the United States." He considered the causes that lead students away from the classics, and dwelt on the special need in our times and in our country of such studies, and held, with refreshing optimism, that devotion to the study of the classics would surely continue if teachers of the classics remained enthusiastically convinced of their value and their abiding vitality, and communicated that enthusiasm to pupils.

An important part of the third joint session was the address in memory of Francis A. March, for many years professor at Lafayette College, a scholar of the highest distinction in ancient and modern languages, a teacher of consummate skill, and an active member of the two associations. This address was by Prof. James W. Bright, of the Johns Hopkins University.

The joint meeting with the Modern Language Association was voted a great success. In point of fact the scholarly and the material interests of the two associations touch at many points. The profounder work, both in Romance philology and in English, is impossible unless laid on a classical foundation. Nor can a thoughtful student of German literature forget that to the vivifying influence of Greek language and literature, at the end of the eighteenth century, Germany owes the impulse which made her one of the dominant intellectual forces of the nineteenth century. In the pedagogical field, too, the attention now given to the application of the direct method to the teaching of Latin and Greek has caused teachers of the classics to give increased attention to the teaching of the modern foreign languages.

One most impressive result of the

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great numbers in attendance was the spectacle presented at the informal smoker held in the great hall of the fine new building of the Harvard Club in Boston. The hundreds of men gathered there joined in the singing of various songs; the singing of Gaudeamus Igitur, led by the great organ in the hall, was especially inspiring.

The papers presented at the meeting of the American Philological Association, whether actually read or merely read by title, numbered forty-five. They deal with a very wide variety of subjects. At one session papers concerned with the Greco-Roman theatre were grouped; at another there were successive papers on Greco-Roman religion.

The American Philological Association is a national association, but geographical considerations (the distances to be travelled and the cost of such travel) prevent many of its members from attending its sessions. Indeed, such difficulties led to the formation of a Pacific Coast division of the Association, which has had an active life for some years, and is planning now to hold two meetings in each year. Bearing in mind these considerations, one finds interest in the following table showing the number of papers emanating from the classical teaching staffs of various colleges and universities: Brown, 1; Chicago, 2; Columbia, 3; Grove City, 1; Harvard, 3; Illinois (Univ.), 1; McGill, 1; Michigan, 2; Minnesota, 1; Missouri, 1; Northwestern, 2; Pennsylvania, 4; Pittsburgh, 2; Princeton, 1; St. Stephen's, 1; Texas, 1; Union, 1; Vanderbilt, 2; Vassar, 4; Virginia, 1; Washington and Jefferson, 3; Western Reserve, 2; Wisconsin, 1; Yale, 1.

Questions dealing with the pedagogy of the classics never receive real consideration at the meetings of the Association; and this circumstance lent special interest to that part of the address of Professor Hohlfeld, of the University of Wisconsin, president of the Modern Language Association, in which he urged that Association to make proper provision for the pedagogical interests of the teachers of modern languages, especially those in secondary schools. In the classical field these interests are amply cared for by such organizations as the Classical Association of New England, the Classical Association of the Atlantic States, and the Classical Association of the Middle West and South.

Twice recently, however, the American Philological Association has been invited to lend its approval to movements primarily pedagogical in their nature. At the recent meeting the joint committee on grammatical nomenclature, appointed several years ago by the National Education Association, the Modern Language Association of America, and the American Philological Association, presented a report recommending the adoption of certain grammatical terms for use in all language teaching, in Greek, Latin, French, Italian, Spanish, and English—on the ground that the terms endorsed by the committee gave identical terms for identical grammatical phenomena, so that the general adoption of them would make for economy of time and labor in the teaching and the learning of these languages. Since the copies of the report did not reach the members of the American Philological Association till its meeting was half over, and there was therefore no opportunity to examine thoroughly the sixty-three pages of the report, it was felt by many members that all consideration of the report should be postponed to the next annual meeting. A motion for such postponement, without prejudice to the merits of the report, was presented. However, after a debate of nearly two hours, which at all times was deliberately kept away from the merits of the report itself, and from the more fundamental question whether uniform grammatical terminology was necessary or desirable, the following resolution was, by a vote of 36 to 19, substituted for the motion of postponement:

> Resolved, That the Association express its sense of the desirability of uniformity of grammatical terminology in the work of the schools; and recommend that the schools follow the general lines of the report of the Joint Committee on Grammatical Nomenclature, with the understanding that this recommendation does not carry with it approval of all the terms proposed in the report.

The officers elected for the year 1914 are as follows: President, Edward Capps, Princeton; vice-presidents, Carl Darling Buck, Chicago, and Edward P. Morris, Yale; secretary-treasurer, Frank C. Moore, Columbia; executive committee, Charles Knapp, Columbia; Henry A. Sanders, Michigan; John A. Scott, Northwestern; Kirby Flower Smith, Johns Hopkins; Arthur L. Wheeler, Bryn Mawr.

CHARLES KNAPP.

THE ARCHÆOLOGICAL INSTITUTE OF AMERICA.

NEW YORK, January 4.

The annual meeting of the Institute was held in Montreal, at McGill University, January 1-3. The attendance of members, aside from those in Canada within easy reach of Montreal, was less than normal. All of New Year's Day and all Saturday morning were given to the business of the Institute—affairs quite unrelated to the reading and discussion of papers. The most important items of business transacted were the re-election of Prof. F. W. Shipley, of Washington University, St. Louis, as president, and the passage of a motion authorizing the executive committee to enter upon the publication of a bi-monthly non-technical journal, to be known, probably, as *Art and Archæology*, as soon as a guarantee fund of $4,000 shall be actually in possession of the Institute. Further details concerning the journal, such as the selection of a managing editor and associate editors, were referred to a special committee.

The total number of papers presented was thirty-two. An interesting point is the circumstance that a considerable number were not archæological at all: at any rate, they did not deal with those works of form and substance with which it is the special province of archæology, in the accepted sense of the term, to deal. Further, the complete stoppage of excavations at important sites in Greece, Asia Minor, and Africa, as the result of the wars involving Greece and Turkey, made the current year somewhat barren of important new discoveries. One other fact was made clear, at least to the present writer, by the experiences of the meeting just closed: some plan must be worked out by which the business of the Institute may be transacted in full before the reading of papers begins. This is necessary in order that a speaker may have among his auditors the leading members of the Institute, those, in a word, best competent to value and to discuss his paper. At the recent meeting their time was consumed in committee meetings which, though begun before the reading of papers was in order, continued long after such reading was under way.

CHARLES KNAPP.

THE MODERN LANGUAGE ASSOCIATION.

EASTON, Penn., January 3.

Well above three hundred members and their "gests" (as the official programme has it), probably the largest number in the history of the Association, attended the thirty-first meeting on December 29, 30, and 31, held under the auspices of Harvard University. The meeting was a joint one with the Philological Association; the last occasion on which the two societies met together was in 1900. The admirable way in which the wants of all were met and their pleasure administered to speaks well for the care of the local committee of the University. There were the reception and the luncheon at the Harvard Union, the opening of Mrs. Gardner's house in Fenway Court on Tuesday afternoon, and the smoker at the Harvard Club of Boston, at which Dr. Crothers furnished the "smoke-talk" to the delight of his four hundred hearers.

At the joint evening session of Tuesday Prof. A. R. Hohlfeld, of the University of Wisconsin, president of the Modern Language Association, discoursed on "Light from Goethe on Our Problems."

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Goethe, he said, sympathized with *Weltlitteratur*, with its implication that those who study a foreign language and literature come to have a broader tolerance for other nations and a deeper knowledge of their own. Goethe also recognized that there should be a harmonious synthesis of conflicting ideals, so that one should sympathize with research as well as with teaching. In the work of the Association there had been a marked decrease recently in articles dealing with broad pedagogical subjects; in 1884 half the articles of the *Publications* were of this nature, whereas since 1892 there had hardly been one. The college ideal of teaching has given way to the university ideal of research. An effort should be made to restore the balance, and this could best be done by the establishment of a journal that would seek to give the many teachers of the country expert advice on matters of broad pedagogical interest. The third matter in which, according to Professor Hohlfeld's view, Goethe can illuminate our ideas is in the outlook for the future. The real promise lies not in a return to the old humanism, but in a richer and deeper study of the natural sciences. Goethe, the poet-scientist, took a broad outlook upon nature and got from his study of natural science æsthetic and moral direction in his life and art.

The more specialized papers of the meeting varied in interest and in range, and were read by representatives of nineteen institutions, extending from Harvard University to the Universities of Texas and California. Only two could be called philological in the narrower sense, one on the Germanic preterit by Professor Prokosch, of the University of Texas, and the other on "*Ye* and *You* in the King James Version" by Professor Kenyon, of Butler College.

A paper of more than specialized interest was on the myth of the "noble Indian" by Professor von Klenze, of Brown University. Early travellers to America described the Indian sometimes as savage, sometimes as kindly, since they had no thesis to prove. Later writers, however, who would extenuate the atrocities of the Spaniards in Central and South America, made the Indian savage and bestial. This injustice evoked a defence by the Spanish Bishop Las Casas in 1552, who represented the Indian as gentle and kindly in contrast to the cruel Spaniard. The Bishop's book was at once taken up by the enemies of Spain and Catholicism, so that it went through forty editions in seven languages, and gave rise to the widespread conception of the noble red man that prevailed through the seventeenth and eighteenth centuries, and that played a great part in the imagination of Europe.

Two other papers were concerned with America: one was a strong plea by Professor Mead, of Wesleyan University, for concentrated, systematic, and immediate work on an American dialect dictionary; the other was a report by Professor Lomax, of the University of Texas, on his rescuing of American folk-songs. Professor Lomax has nearly a thousand ballads, most of them for the first time now reduced to writing, which he took down from oral delivery. The ballads belong to eight marked types: those of the miner, the lumberman, the canal-boatman, the inland sailor—especially of the Great Lakes—the soldier, the railway man, the negro, and the cowboy; to which may be added those of the "down-and-out class"—the "dope fiend," the "jailbird," the convict, and the tramp. The ballad is full of life in the open, vigorous, expressive of supreme physical endeavor, and is composed by men away from home, like the Arizona cowboy thus described:

I've seed a lot of places where I'd like to stay,
But I gits a-feelin' restless an' I'm on my way;
I was never meant for settin' on my own door sill,
An', once you git the habit, why, you can't keep still. . . .

The sun is sorter coaxin' and the road is clear,
An' the wind is singin' ballads that I got to hear;
It ain't no use to argue when you feel the thrill,
For, once you git the habit, you can't keep still.

Almost identical ballads will be found in widely separated parts of the country.

There are many war songs still unprinted, especially from the Civil War, and the rebel songs are better than the Yankee.

Professor Scott, of the University of Michigan, in a paper on "Vowel Alliteration in Modern Poetry," combated Professor Saintsbury's contention that there is no such thing as vowel alliteration. He argued, chiefly from his study of the verse of Milton and Tennyson, that it is genuine and effective. The alliteration is not due to the sonority of the vowel sound, but to the glottal catch, or the unmarked sound of consonantal value before the initial vowel. This catch is not so marked in England as in Germany; it is fairly common in America, especially in the West.

Probably the most original contribution presented at this meeting was on "Chaucer and the Seven Deadly Sins," by Prof. Frederick Tupper, of the University of Vermont. It was a continuation in very much condensed form of his article in the *Nation* of October 16, 1913, on Chaucer's treatment of love in the "Canterbury Tales," and it sought to show that certain of the pilgrims in their persons, prologues, and tales illustrate the seven deadly sins, and that the Parson's tract is the culmination of a long-sustained *motif*. Parallels with Gower, the marked pointing of the moral in each of the tales dealing with a particular sin, the assigning of each of these narratives to the representative of the vice under rebuke, the linking of these tales with the Parson's sermon, are the proofs by which the conclusion is reached. A new irony is discovered in the fact that the story-teller sometimes incarnates the very sin he preaches against, as in the cases of the Pardoner, the Wife of Bath, and the Manciple.

Professor Kittredge presented a motion, which was almost unanimously carried, that the secretary of the Association should ascertain by post-card the wishes of the members concerning the use of the so-called reformed spelling, which had been adopted some years ago and is now employed in the publications.

The president of the Association for the coming year is Prof. Felix E. Schelling, of the University of Pennsylvania, and the vice-presidents are Professors von Klenze, of Brown University; Bourland, of Western Reserve University, and Tatlock, of the University of Wisconsin. The place of the next meeting has not yet been decided upon.

JAMES W. TUPPER.

NEWS FOR BIBLIOPHILES.

Some time ago the Paris weekly, *Les Annales Politiques et Littéraires*, offered prizes for sonnets which were to be addressed to French authors, living or dead. It is not remarkable or especially important that this call elicited 2,872 responses, nor even perhaps that of this number all but half a dozen contained fourteen lines of twelve syllables each; but it is a matter of real significance that a competition instituted by a periodical of popular character and of modest circulation in a country which is no longer one of the most populous, should call forth twenty such genuinely poetical and uniformly perfect sonnets as are now published in *Les Annales*. The result in this country, if it were possible to imagine a popular American illustrated weekly instituting such a contest—in view, especially, of the difficulty of making clear to the ordinary reader of such an American periodical just what a sonnet is—would have been very likely to be a mass of fantastic nonsense, and the judges would probably have selected the most fantastic for distinction; but Auguste Dorchain, himself a graceful poet and as sane as any Philistine, has chosen to reward twenty candidates whose work is entirely free from the grotesque and the violent. The list, which, by accident or design, shows exactly ten classic titles and ten names of contemporaries, has at least two sonnets that deserve to live. One is the noble apostrophe to Corneille, with the stirring end-lines that warm the blood:

Et nous sentons tes vers, comme les mots d'un juste,
Claquer au vent de l'âme ainsi que des drapeaux!

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And the sonnet to Edmond Rostand, beginning

Nous t'aimons à genoux, gravement, tendrement,

shows an admirably sustained beauty.

The prefatory statement by Auguste Dorchain is worth translating. His definition of the sonnet is extremely well done:

That which is lacking in the work of those candidates whom I have qualified as simply respectable is the knowledge of what I will call the interior laws of the sonnet, which make of this poetic form a sort of drama in four acts, with its exposition, its intrigue, its dénoûment, arriving, by a skilful progression, at a final climax which, by the idea, the image, or the stamp of the line, reverberates, concludes, illuminates all the rest. And many of them are not clear, either, that throughout these fourteen lines there cannot be one weakness of rhyme or of language. A sonnet must be a finished and perfect work of art.

And more valuable than all definition is the story how Dorchain himself once helped finish the faultless structure of one of José-Maria de Heredia's "Trophées":

Ah! if I had time, I should tell you how Heredia often left a sonnet on the stocks for years, simply because he had found one weak word in it, and because he knew that the strong word, the characteristic word, the only true and possible word, existed, and that he should find it sooner or later. And I would even tell you how one day I had the happiness—and I am very proud of it—to find for him one of those words, without which he would not have included in his "Trophées" one of the sonnets he loved the most. It was the one called "Tranquillus," and consecrated to Suetonius and his villa at Tibur. "C'est là," said the condemned text:

. . . C'est là
Que l'ont hanté Néron, Claude, Caligula
Et Messaline *errant* sous la stole pourprée. . . .

"Errant! what a feeble word, my friend," cried the master, "to express the shame of that Empress prowling about among the dives of Suburra. I shall never give my sonnet to the *Revue des Deux Mondes* with that word in it. Find me the word I should have, and I will try to find for you a better line than that impossible third line in the poem you have read me."

Two hours later, a "petit bleu" brought me three excellent substitutes for my line; and at the same time Heredia received from me a pneumatic dispatch with this proposition:

Messaline *rôdant* sous la stole pourprée.

which is the definitive text.

How many contemporary versifiers could duplicate this charming experience?

ROY TEMPLE HOUSE.

Correspondence

THE SEAMEN'S BILL.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: The resignation and return of Mr. Furuseth, president of the Seamen's Union, from the International Congress on the Safety of Ships, compels attention once more to the Seamen's bill, now under consideration of a House Committee.

Why did Mr. Furuseth resign? Simply because he found that the combined opinions of representative thinking men of all nations of the world—men who are thoroughly sincere and well qualified by training and experience to form opinions on all matters pertaining to ships—did not agree with his own. The presumption of a man who has never designed, built, operated, owned, or commanded a ship—at any rate during the last nineteen years—in stating that in his opinion the International Congress was not doing the right thing simply because it did not follow his prejudiced ideas as to lifeboats and manning the same, is naïve, to say the least of it.

Mr. Furuseth expects to appear before the House Committee and try to force his ideas upon them. The hearings will be resumed shortly, and it is to be hoped that the future meetings will be conducted in a fairer and more truly American manner than heretofore, and less as a one-sided criminal court. One member, a shrewd lawyer, for reasons best known to himself, is evidently bent upon bringing out only those things which are favorable to the bill, and is endeavoring to confuse most of the shipowners who have appeared, and who, on their side, have no lawyer to bring out the points they wish to take in rebuttal. He would not allow one of our best-known naval architects even to mention anything in connection with the effect of the bill upon the operation of vessels, because, foorsooth, he was not a steamship manager. Every one who has even the remotest knowledge of shipbuilding knows that this very question of operation is one that enters into the design of every ship, and it is often the naval architect who advises the shipowner as to the type and design of vessel that should be built for his service.

If we follow such methods of procedure to their logical conclusion, Senator La Follette had no right to bring up the bill in the first instance, because he has confessed that he knows nothing about ships and has obtained his knowledge second-hand—not from those who design, build, operate, sail, or own ships, but from a man (Mr. Furuseth) who has been haunting the galleries of the Senate for the last nineteen years.

It will also be interesting to see if Mr. Furuseth will be allowed, without question, to give testimony on many points upon which he has at present an obsession, but upon which he can scarcely qualify as an expert according to the present methods adopted by the Committee.

To any thinking man the whole matter has been conceived in ignorance, forced to an immature growth by the milk of ambition of its mother and nurse, and in its present weakly adolescent state and inability to stand upon its own feet, is receiving the necessary support in the way of artificial legal props. Let us hope that in these days of eugenics both it and those of a similar breed may never be allowed to reach the adult stage.

It is one of the most obvious plays for the labor vote, at the expense of our none too prosperous mercantile marine, that has ever occurred; and the most amusing, if not pathetic, thing about it is the way that the leaders of this party seem to be able to "bluff" our lawmakers at Washington. The real opinions of the rank and file of labor are by no means always those of their loquacious representatives, and any man who stands out for fair play and justice will, in the end, get the reputation and following that he deserves, without selling his birthright for such a "*mess* of pottage" as the Seamen's bill.

HERBERT C. SADLER.

University of Michigan, January 7.

THE SENSE OF SMELL.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: I deplore with a recent contributor to one of our leading literary magazines the fact that our sense of smell seems of late years to have lost caste. But I particularly lament the effect this state of things has had upon our fiction. Our writers nowadays rarely draw on this sense; or if they do, it seems to be merely in a perfunctory manner. They feel, apparently, that for convention's sake it is still necessary to refer certain odors to certain situations, but trusting that their readers will not be able to smell the difference, they content themselves with using any trite formula. Most of these formulæ are too well known to need specific instances. For example: the complementary smell of a New England spinster story, lavendar; of a tale of camp life, pines; of a June romance, roses. If the question were to be put—What is the odor of the Maine coast?—any reader of American fiction would answer unhesitatingly, "cod." And I fancy that more than one of us crossing the Vermont line for the first time has been surprised that he did not at once smell maple sap!

But, fortunately, those who mourn the decline and fall of the sense of smell at home may find solace abroad in the work of the Russians—which leads one to infer that, as a people, they still have good noses. One could multiply without end examples from their great story-tellers of cases in which the sense of smell gets its due. Their perceptions, far from being conventional, are keen and fresh, and they are not dragged in simply for form's sake, but are an integral part of the matter. The impression on the reader is correspondingly deep. Every one who has read Turgenev's "Smoke" will remember the heavy fragrance of the violets which was so oppressive to the hero and played so important a part in the story. And who can ever forget the mouldering smell of that cellar-bakery in Gorky's "Twenty-six and One"? It is as strong as the story itself. Or of those dens of darkness and drink which Dostoievsky's villain-hero haunts?—degrading, nauseating smells of the underworld that are part and parcel of Raskolnikoff's terrible punishment.

What is more, the Russians lay this neglected sense under contribution for delicate and subtle, as well as for striking and theatrical, effects; and to this end they follow their noses with analytical sensitiveness. Tcheckov's Kvaschin, in "A Rainy Day," smells not simply of drink, as he would have done to an American novelist, but of "Madeira and fine liqueurs." In the corners of Shoemaker Anton's shop in Artzybachev's story of that name hangs a stale stench, not of leather alone, but of "leather, oil, and wax." Along with such an obvious smell, the same author thinks it worth while to note in another place the evasive *odor of melting snow*. But for sheer refinement of impression, I know of no instance equal to the following, which occurs in that most remarkable of all Russian stories of revolution, Artzybachev's "Shadows of the Morning": It is a February day, and the heroine has just come from a walk into the room of her lover.

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"She remained standing by the table," the text reads, "and from her soft black jacket radiated the fresh, sweet smell of the cold." The tribute here paid by one of the greatest living artists to the frosty fragrance so beloved of children (and such others as have not yet been overtaken by adenoids) will perhaps bring some small comfort to those who, like the writer, regard with dismay the immense loss to our literature resulting from our failing appreciation of the sense of smell. HELEN MCAFEE.

New York, January 10.

JOHN DAVENPORT AND LADY VERE.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: In an article by Franklin B. Dexter, entitled "The Life and Writings of John Davenport," in the New Haven Historical Society Papers, Vol II, p. 216, it is said:

In 1628, we have the first two which are preserved [in the British Museum] of a series of nine letters from Davenport to Lady Mary Vere, whose religious life appears to have been under his direction.

A search in the British Museum Catalogue of Printed Books does not appear to show that the British MSS. to which Dexter refers or any calendar of them has been printed. Five of the letters are in A. B. Davenport's "History and Genealogy of the Davenport Family in England and America." They are dated as follows: 26 December, 1629, written from London to Lady Vere at The Hague, where her husband's "military exploits" had taken her; November, 1633, written from Amsterdam, where Davenport had gone after his resignation from St. Stephen's Church, London, to Lady Vere at The Hague; 21 July, 1635, written from Amsterdam to Lady Vere at Hackney; 25 December, 1635, written from Rotterdam to Lady Vere in England; 28 July, 1639, written from New Haven to Lady Vere in England.

A careful search has thus far failed to locate printed copies of the other four letters. Dexter mentions two as having been written in 1628, and states that one of them, dated June 30, makes reference to Davenport's quarrel with Bishop Laud. In the list of Davenport's writings given at the end of Dexter's article, the remaining two letters are dated January, 1636, and 13 November, 1647.

I should be glad to know if these letters, or any others not noted by Dexter that throw light on the relations between Davenport and Lady Vere, exist in print or in any manuscript collection outside of the British Museum. HELEN L. SULLIVAN.

No. 66 College Street, Providence, R. I., January 9.

Literature

ANCIENT EMPIRE.

Greek Imperialism. By William Scott Ferguson, Professor of Ancient History in Harvard University. Boston: Houghton Mifflin Co. $2 net.

Readers of Professor Ferguson's "Hellenistic Athens" will expect in the present study a fresh and vigorous restatement of historical problems partly complementary to, partly in extension of, his former theme. Nor will they be disappointed. In his introductory chapter, Imperialism and the City-State, he defines empire as "a state formed by the rule of one state over other states. It is immaterial in this connection what form of government the ruling people prefers." This both provides for the imperial democracy of Athens and explains how Sparta, usually thought of as a self-contained oligarchy, came to assume, in her turn also, the imperialistic rôle. Mr. Ferguson, with all his scholarly interest in his theme, rarely shows any tendency towards special pleading. He states the case for the Athenian democracy as well, perhaps, as it can be done. And, at the very outset (p. 2), he shows himself alive to the presumptuous arrogance of our cant phrase—"the white man's burden." His book, cut short by no artificial break before or after Alexander, is a discussion of the entail of imperialism passed on from Athens to Sparta, from the orthodox Hellenes to Alexander and the Diadochi, with their far-flung empires ripening for the Roman harvest.

The Athenian empire, as Thucydides represents Cleon's words, was "a despotism exercised over unwilling subjects." Athens, as Mr. Ferguson points out, denied her "allies" the right to secede. And Athens had not even the excuse of a debatable interpretation of a Constitution binding upon sovereign and federated states. The specific objections most often urged against the imperial democracy of Athens Mr. Ferguson considers unwarranted. His candid discussion is not, however, equally convincing at all points. Arguing, as is perhaps natural, from the side of the home government, he speaks of the economic give and take. Impecunious Athenians were settled on lands taken from the allies. "In payment therefor reductions of tribute were given." This was, no doubt, sound economic expediency for the imperial government, but it is not clear how the dispossessed inhabitants were beneficiaries. The general objection that the democracy resulted in moral and intellectual mediocrity is more successfully met by a résumé of the contemporary intellectual output. The notion that Athenian history played itself out upon a miniature stage must be revised by the statement (p. 43), fortified by the context, that "the world which Athens under Pericles sought to dominate must have had a population of over 20,000,000."

In the chapter From Sparta to Aristotle Mr. Ferguson, after a needless fling at the English excavators in Laconia, points sharply the contrast between Athens and Sparta. Athens inoculated her whole democracy with the spirit and culture of the aristocracy, "the whole people, thus ennobled, being supported on the shoulders of the tributary allies." In Sparta the nobler art of the earlier day—whether native or imported—together with the aristocracy was destroyed in the sixth century B. C. Sacrificing all of this, together with certain fundamental instincts of civilized humanity, to the "vocational training" of the military barracks, Sparta escaped the episode of formal tyranny only to subject herself perennially to the ephorate, which, like the tribunate at Rome, was "tyranny in commission" (p. 84).

Certain strictures on the political ideas of Plato and Aristotle form the transition to the treatment of Alexander's empire. Mr. Ferguson points out (p. 102) that Plato's model in his "Laws" was "an emended and perfected edition of Sparta." Again (p. 113): "The birthmark which we have noted on Plato is an unreasoning hatred of democracy. That which mars above all the political thinking of Aristotle comes from the aversion instinctively felt by his age for imperialism." Mr. Ferguson would doubtless be right in implying that Plato's ideal justice, despite his apotheosis of Spartan militarism, would hamstring the sinews of imperial expansion, but his "youthful" Republic is profoundly constructive for the imperial democracy of the intellectualized conscience. His Recall is the "recall of the noblest in the soul to a vision of the most excellent in the ideal" (Rep. VIII, 532, C); his Referendum the revising of shifting opinions according to "the pattern that is laid up in heaven" (Rep. IX, 592, B).

Alexander the Great, overleaping the circumscribed walls of Aristotle's city-state, transmuted into material empire his master's suzerainty over the physical and metaphysical universe. He displayed a feverish energy in founding Greek city-states. Hellenized "towns by the score sprang up behind him on his line of march." Nor did he shrink from unhellenic practices in order to inoculate the Orient with Hellenism. With well-advertised and well-staged ceremony he had himself deified among his new subjects. As their incarnate god he became fully naturalized. In this *proskynesis* of cities our author sees "an absolutism such as Europe—and for that matter Asia—had never known before and has never ceased to know since." The "signal service" of this *proskynesis* was, he adds, "that it made possible the lasting union of all the city-states of the world in a single great territorial state."

Mr. Ferguson's analysis of the varying practices pursued by the Diadochi is instructive. Ptolemy Lagi discarded the Persian bride, imposed upon him by Alexander's policy, and married a Macedonian princess. Thus the splendid Ptolemaic dynasty, lasting 271 years,

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showed from its inception a return to Hellenism. Even the soldiers, "multiracial though they were, . . . all spoke Greek." And in religion there was established a *rapprochement* between Greek and Egyptian. Later on, however, under stress of military necessity, the Greek element was diluted by native intermarriages, "so that a considerable half-breed and bilingual population developed—Greek in the outward things, fellaheen, according to Polybius, in character and culture."

In the chapter on the Seleucid Empire is clearly brought out the persistence of Alexander's projection of Hellenism upon the Orient. The Greek language and laws, Greek cities, gymnasia, and musical contests grew and multiplied. Over all presided a motley choir of native and Greek deities with the living Emperor as chief city-god. "Greek ideas and customs became a ferment which stirred the peoples of Asia to the depths" (p. 207). As was inevitable, the Hellene succumbed in the end. The Seleucid empire was weakened by internal revolts, but it was crushed from without by the ever-advancing Roman, on the one hand, and the Indo-Scythians on the other. To the latter Mr. Ferguson assigns a large rôle. As the Roman conquerors carried Greek influence to the West, so these Indo-Scythians—the Yue Tchi of the Chinese—acted, after the collapse of Greek sway, as purveyors of Hellenic influences to the Orient. "It is an amazing spectacle," he says (p. 194), "to observe how Hellenistic civilization flowed simultaneously back the channels to the springs of Italy and China whence came the floods which overwhelmed the Seleucid empire."

Finally, in the Empire of the Antigonids a more genuine Hellenism reasserted itself. "It was not Macedon but Greece which took the proud Roman victor captive and bore the arts to rustic Latium" (p. 216). Mr. Ferguson does well to elaborate the character of Antigonus Gonatas. Unlike Alexander, Antigonus, a worthy pupil of Zeno, did not see fit to outrage and nullify real Hellenism by posing as a god.

We are reminded, too, of the passing of the city-state and how even the ethnic bond is cancelled and replaced by a federal bond. Why this empire also succumbed is aptly illustrated: "In the art of government the Antigonids were resourceful, but to lift up a jelly-fish on a spear-point is an impossible task. Yet that is what they had to do in Hellas." It might be fair to add, in the spirit of Shelley's "Hellas," that a more esoteric imperialism remained uplifted on the bronze spear of Athena Promachus.

One matter of style might raise question. How far is it desirable to strain the English reader's vocabulary by semi-naturalized Greek words? *Proskynesis*, explained and italicized, is justified as a technical term, but other non-resident aliens, like *ethne*, *hegemon*, and *Perioecs* (*sic*), seem much in evidence. "Zoo" (though a "dictionary" word) is an intruder on an otherwise dignified context, and "piazza" (in the Italian sense) might be better provided for. "Chronus" for Kronus (p. 143) is a natural confusion. It was already known in antiquity, but is now edited out of the verse of Cratinus cited by Plutarch.

But such matters are insignificant in a book which is welcome alike to the special student and to the general reader.

CURRENT FICTION.

Circe's Daughter. By Priscilla Craven. New York: Duffield & Co.

John Ward, M.D. By Charles Vale. New York: Mitchell Kennerley.

The Devil's Garden. By W. B. Maxwell. London: Hutchinson & Co.

The time is now comfortably past when Albion could be accused with justice of subordinating her fiction to the taste and morals of her Young Persons. Perhaps this is so because her Young Persons no longer exist; or perhaps they no longer exist because this is so. At all events, the reader of liberal mind has now a two-to-one chance of finding the latest English novel unfit to pass around the family circle. This is true, to be sure, of the latest American magazine. But in the novel—despite the efforts of an enthusiast here and there—we remain, as usual, somewhat behind the English fashion. Give us a little more time, and we shall doubtless be devoting our best local talent to the physiology of the human goat.

The Circe of Priscilla Craven is *hirca humana*, the female of the species. We do not follow her through the detail of her more active career. We simply learn that she has passed through youth to middle age with distinguished success in her chosen *métier:* that is, she has been the mistress of many men without ceasing to be the wife of one, and consequently without sacrifice of her social position. That is a charming scene in which we are introduced to her in conversation with her eldest daughter (by one of the many). Mrs. Iverson rather prefers Claudia to her younger daughter because she is of her own physical type:

"You and I are just the right height. I think this modern girl by the yard is a mistake. None of the famous women such as Jeanne du Barry and Ninon de Lenclos were very tall. Patricia will make most men look ridiculous."

"Perhaps Pat doesn't want to be a Ninon de Lenclos," suggested Claudia with a twinkle.

"Nonsense, every woman wants to be a Ninon de Lenclos, if she could have the chance. Don't be taken in with this talk of 'I wouldn't.' It's a case of 'I couldn't.' Most women have to be virtuous, because they can't be anything else, and they make the best of it."

Claudia desires to be virtuous, but she has her mother's blood in her, and a loveless marriage almost results disastrously for her. She is not a wanton, but "*une amoureuse.*" Her symptoms are described minutely, and it is only because she has unconsciously given her heart (thank Heaven, she has a heart!) to a good man that she remains technically a good woman till her husband's death provides for a comfortable curtain.

The most vivid person in the story is hardly concerned with the main action—Fay Morris, the little music-hall singer, a bit of true and moving portraiture, a spade who is rightly (since we have disposed of the Young Person) described as a spade. One droll thing about this narrative is that, despite its very "modern" substance, its style is that of the gentle romancer, the William Black or the Mrs. de la Pasture of blameless memory. And there are lapses from sophistication into a delightful ingenuousness, as in the description of the American among Claudia's admirers: "In some ways he was not unlike Colin Paton, save that he had the American restlessness and nerviness, and that he lacked the fine polish and self-possession which a man may possibly acquire, but is usually associated with families that can count back many centuries, and that have always tried to uphold the best traditions of English manhood."

The problem of inherited sexual taint, here treated as if it concerned merely Claudia, is the main problem in "John Ward, M.D.," and is presented as capable of no merely personal solution. John Ward is a country physician from choice. His grandfather, Lord Daventry, had planned for him a more ornamental career. The grandfather has lived the life of a voluptuary, and in age pretends to regret only his years and disability. Cynicism is his pose, and he is far from holding himself up as an awful example; but inwardly he is consumed with fear lest his grandson, who, he knows, inherits his temperament, shall succumb to it. Ward himself is conscious of his danger. Only will power and hard work give him a chance of salvation. Till well past his first youth he resists his familiar devil, makes himself indispensable in a rough mining community, and almost attains a state of peace. Then comes into his life a woman of the Circe type, a woman breathing sex. She casts her spell upon him. It is not altogether an evil spell. She has a "past," but it has been a past of seeking for the true love which John Ward at last embodies for her. But Ward realizes, and makes her realize, that they are both essentially abnormal and decadent, and that a mating be-

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tween them would be a crime against the race. So he sends her away, hopeless but obedient. The verdict is ruthless: "She must deal with her own problem. Man had taken much from woman, for his lust and his desire and his love. But he had given more, pretending when illusion was gone; yielding to her weakness, as to a child's; deceiving her, for her vanity's sake; killing his soul, that her body might live. . . . Dreamily, he felt his kinship with those who do things, walking steadfastly in a known path. . . ."

John Ward's decision is as much the fruit of his mysticism as of his conviction that he is "the Beast." In Mr. Galsworthy's "Dark Flower" the physiology of passion has the floor. There also we find the older generation, conscious of the chances of heredity, discussing its erotic experiences with the younger. And there we find a picture of the belated passion of age for youth: that dreadful obsession of desire which no doubt does come to many men who have passed their physical prime. It is a theme which, a few years ago, no reputable writer of English fiction would have ventured to deal with. Mr. Galsworthy's restrained and imaginative handling deprives it of grosser offence.

In "The Devil's Garden" Mr. Maxwell puts himself under no sort of restraint. The story is this: A man long married to a woman whom he worships as the embodiment of purity finds that she has just yielded herself, to gain his advancement, to an old man who has seduced her in childhood, and whose mistress she has been before their marriage. He murders the old man. The crime is not brought home, and the pair are reconciled, have children, and pass quiet years. Then the man finds himself the helpless victim of a passion for a child who has been adopted into his family. She returns his feeling as instinctively and completely as the young girl of Mr. Galsworthy's story. Like Mr. Galsworthy's hero, and Mr. Vale's, he dismisses her. But he knows that nothing will keep them apart till they have fulfilled their natures. Loathing himself and life, he finds a way to death consistent with "poetic justice." The seducer of his wife (and of many others, including her aunt and her cousin) has not died without leaving a monument. A motive here seems taken pretty directly from Ibsen's "Ghosts." The old libertine Alving left money to found an orphanage. This aged reprobate leaves half his fortune to the founding of a home for unprotected girls. His murderer and successor in lustfulness dies in the flames of the burning "home" after saving seven of its innocents. This is the pleasantest thing in the story. Mr. Maxwell is most conscientious in recording the symptoms and progress of his patient's disease.

A NOTABLE EDITION OF DONNE.

The Poems of John Donne. Edited from the Old Editions and Numerous Manuscripts, with Introductions and Commentary by Herbert J. C. Grierson. New York: Oxford University Press. 2 vols.

A carefully prepared text of Donne's poems, with proper commentary, has long been a desideratum for those interested in the transition from Elizabethan to Jacobean and Caroline literature, and this want has been amply filled by the present edition. Mr. Grierson's work will take an honorable place among the scholarly editions by which the Oxford University Press is, in a way, reproducing for us the *corpus* of English letters. Donne has been well treated by E. K. Chambers in the Muses' Library and by C. E. Norton in his Grolier Club edition, but neither of these editors had the patience, or the opportunity, to go through the bewildering manuscript material which it was necessary to collate in order to establish an authoritative text, and they have not, in the judgment of Mr. Grierson, been always wise in their choice of readings from the various printed editions.

It is not expedient here to follow the minute analysis of the editions and manuscripts which forms the substance of the second, long section of Mr. Grierson's introduction. He has himself summed up his method of procedure under these heads:

(1.) To restore the text of 1633 [the first collected edition, published two years after the author's death] in all cases where modern editors have abandoned or disguised it, if there is no evidence, internal or external, to prove its error or inferiority; and to show, in the textual notes, how far it has the general support of the manuscripts.

(2.) To correct 1633 when the meaning and the evidence of the manuscripts point to its error and suggest an indubitable or highly probable emendation.

(3.) To correct throughout, and more drastically, by help of the manuscripts when such exist, the often carelessly and erroneously printed text of those poems which were added in 1635, 1649, 1650, and 1669.

By the aid of the very full *apparatus criticus*, printed at the bottom of the pages, we thus have all the material that the most exacting student could require to form his own judgment of the words actually used by Donne. For the ordinary reader, who goes to such an author for literary profit and enjoyment, there is always a question whether the presentation of such details does not more bewilder than assist; for there is undoubtedly a certain annoyance in having the attention drawn from the poetic content of a passage to consideration of the choice among readings which for the most part, though not always, offer no substantial difference of meaning. But obviously such textual labor in the case of a poet like Donne, whose works did not appear under his own supervision, should be done once for all and exhaustively, and it will now be comparatively easy for Mr. Grierson himself, or another, to produce a popular edition better than any we yet possess. Such an edition would also properly adopt modern spelling and punctuation, and avoid the repulsiveness of a *literatim* reprint, whatever may be the value of pedantic exactness in such a task as Mr. Grierson has at this time undertaken to accomplish.

It is, of course, a debatable matter whether so much weight should be given to the volume of 1633 as Mr. Grierson thinks proper. Under the conditions of publication no one of the four principal seventeenth-century editions, as Mr. Chambers says, "is of supreme authority," and, in preparing his text for the Muses' Library, he might plausibly argue that he "had no choice but to be eclectic." In particular a special claim might be set up for the edition of 1650 [virtually identical with the unique copy of 1649 in the Harvard Library used by Professor Norton], which was the first to appear with the sanction of the younger Donne. But Mr. Grierson has had no difficulty in showing that "Donne's son did nothing to fix either the text or the canon of his father's poems," and a comparison of the present edition with its modern predecessors will convince most candid readers that the general adherence to the *editio princeps* of 1633 is justified by the results. For evidence of this we may open Mr. Grierson's "Commentary," which occupies the major part of his second volume. Two examples, taken almost at random, will set forth the nature of this evidence, and will at the same time illustrate the character of the bulk of the annotations.

The first note comments on the thirteenth line of "The Relique," as follows:

Where mis-devotion doth command. The unanimity of the earlier editions and the MSS. shows clearly that "Mass-devotion" (which Chambers adopts) is merely an ingenious conjecture of the 1669 editor. Donne uses the word frequently, *e. g.*:

Here in a place, where miss-devotion frames
A thousand Prayers to Saints, whose very names
The ancient Church knew not, &c.
Of the Progresse of the Soule, p. 266, *ll.* 511-13.

And: "This mis-devotion, and left-handed piety, of praying for the dead." *Sermons* 80. 77. 780. [Query: Is "miss" an etymological variant for "mass," from Latin *missa*?]

The second example we will take deals with the twenty-fifth line of "Elegie VII," as follows:

Thy graces and good words my creatures bee. I was tempted to adopt with Chambers the "good works" of 1669 and some MSS., the theological connection of

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"grace" and "works" being just the kind of conceit Donne loves to play with. But the "words" of 1633-54 has the support of so good a MS. as *W*, and "good words" is an Elizabethan idiom for commendation, praise, flattery:

> He that will give,
> Good words to thee will flatter neath abhorring.
> Shakespeare, *Coriolanus*, I. i. 170-1.

> In your bad strokes you give good words.
> Shakespeare, *Julius Cæsar*, v. i. 30.

Moreover, Donne's word is "graces," not "grace." "Your graces and commendations are my work," *i. e.*, either the commendations you receive, or, more probably, the refined and elegant flatteries with which you can now cajole a lover, though once your whole stock of conversation did not extend beyond "broken proverbs and torne sentences." Compare, in *Elegie IX: The Autumnall*, the description of Lady Danvers' conversation:

> In all her words, unto all hearers fit,
> You may at Revels, you at Counsaile, sit.

And again, *Elegie XVIII: Loves Progresse:*

> So we her ayres contemplate, words and heart,
> And virtues.

These are strong matters for those who go to a poet for delight, but are well done, once for all. Add to such textual discussions an abundance of other erudition, such as the reprint of the music for one or two of the songs, and some notion will be had of Mr. Grierson's second volume.

This second volume contains also an introduction which deals with "The Poetry of Donne" from the point of view of literary criticism. It is an excellent piece of work, and judicious, but it naturally leaves much to be said.

National Supremacy: Treaty Power vs. State Power. By Edward S. Corwin. New York: Henry Holt & Co. $1.50 net.

In the opinion of Professor Corwin, the supremacy of the national Government attains its highest reach in the exercise of the treaty-making power. He holds Senator Root's view that "in international affairs there are no States; there is but one nation, acting in direct relation to, and representative of, every citizen in every State." But he presses the doctrine much further than Mr. Root does. He insists that the treaty-making power extends to many things to which the legislative power of Congress does not extend by the Constitution. Accordingly, if the President and Senate enter into a treaty covering such things, Congress may pass all laws necessary and proper to carry the treaty into effect, although in so doing it deals with subjects which the Constitution expressly reserves to the States. It follows that while Congressional legislation is limited ordinarily by the police power of the States, it is not so limited when it is enacted to carry into effect the provisions of a treaty.

The author admits that there is much authority opposed to this conclusion, and endeavors to explain it away as obsolete. The view which he discards, however, has received the emphatic approval of a writer whom he cites frequently. (See Butler's "Treaty-Making Power," Vol. II, pp. 48, 49, 52, 64, 245.) It has been reaffirmed, within a few months, by the Supreme Court of Oregon in these words:

> The power of the State by proper legislation to protect health, to promote the morals, and to prevent the introduction of infected articles of trade that would necessarily injure property or affect persons is a matter of self-preservation, and such rights are not intended to be invaded under any clause of the Federal Constitution. (Spaulding vs. McNary, 64 Ore. 491, 496.)

On the other hand, the doctrine contended for by Professor Corwin was championed by the retiring president of the American Bar Association, in his annual address at Montreal, last summer. Both Mr. Kellogg and Professor Corwin admit, however, that Congress has not felt disposed to exercise the power which they claim for it. After referring to the demands made by the Chinese and Italian Governments on behalf of their citizens, who had been outraged in Wyoming and Louisiana in violation of their treaty rights in this country, both writers point to what they consider a humiliating fact, that Congress has refused to enact legislation for the enforcement of such rights in the Federal courts. Mr. Kellogg does not hesitate to characterize this Congressional neglect of duty as shameful. And Professor Corwin, though more courteous, is equally critical of our default in Federal legislation. May not the unwillingness of Congress to enter upon this kind of enactments indicate its doubt of the unlimited supremacy of the treaty-making power?

Even our author feels it necessary, or, at least, desirable, to close his volume with a statement of his reasons for believing that the police power of the States will never be endangered by the doctrine which he champions. One reason is that Congress has the power to abrogate treaties. Another is "that it is of primary interest to the United States that the police powers of the States shall not be essentially abated by treaty."

In other words, the President and Senate may be counted on not to press the unlimited power of treaty-making unduly. If they do, Congress can formally abrogate the treaty or can refrain from enacting legislation necessary and proper to its enforcement. Whether it is worth while to fill a volume with arguments and authorities for the existence of a governmental power which ought not to be exercised, is questionable. If "it is of primary interest to the United States that the police powers of the States shall not be essentially abated by treaty," it should seem to follow that a treaty purporting so to abate them would be an attempt (to quote the words of Mr. Root) "to make provisions regarding matters which are not proper subjects of international agreement, and which would be only a colorable, not a real, exercise of the treaty-making power." At any rate, the practical consequences of the author's doctrine that the treaty-making power is unlimited, but ought not to be so exercised as to abate the police powers of the States, are not very different from those of the doctrine that the treaty power is limited by State police powers.

My Father: Reminiscences of W. T. Stead. By Estelle W. Stead. New York: George H. Doran Co. $2.50 net.

William Thomas Stead was one of the most striking figures of later Victorian England. By birth and education he belongs in that long line of dissenters through whom from generation to generation the English conscience has found one outlet for expression. From Browne the Separatist, John Cotton and the Puritans, through Fox, Bunyan, and Wesley, down to Gen. Booth and Stead, these rebellious witnesses have had certain common resemblances which more than outweigh their differences. In Stead's case the point of chief interest is the use he made of the modern tool—journalism.

He was born July 5, 1849, one of a dozen children of a Congregational minister, settled in a poor parish near Alnwick. He got his chief schooling from his father. A vivacious intelligence, healthy curiosity, and a very real religious sense were his salient characteristics. At fifteen he was apprenticed as an office-boy in a merchant's counting-house at Newcastle-on-Tyne. There he invested his penny savings in the *Sporting Life*—he was passionately fond of cricket and other sports—and in cheap reprints of Shakespeare's plays. The book which, next to the Bible, made the most lasting impression upon him was James Russell Lowell's Poetical Works, bought with part of a guinea prize which he won for an essay in the *Boy's Own Magazine*. Lowell's poem, "Extreme Unction," "changed my life," Stead says. "The idea that everything wrong in the world was a divine call to use your life in righting it, sank deep into my soul."

In 1871 Stead became editor of the *Northern Echo* of Darlington, with which he stayed until 1880, when, to his surprise, John Morley invited him to join the staff of the *Pall Mall Gazette*. The Bulgarian atrocities had given him his opportunity, his vociferous denunciation of the Tory attitude towards them bringing him to the notice of Gladstone and the Liberal leaders. In

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1884 Stead took full command of the *Pall Mall Gazette*.

The following year he gained for himself and his journal a world-wide notoriety through his exposure of the organized traffic in young women for immoral purposes. Thenceforward, until 1890, when he sold the *Gazette* and established the English *Review of Reviews*, he was regarded by the public much as one regards a stick of dynamite which may go off unexpectedly and injure friends and foes alike. So, too, during the last twenty years of his life he engaged in many agitations, social or political, which his sensational manner made easy to criticise as crankish, if not crazy.

The distrust which a large body of the public felt for him was increased by his infatuation, as they called it, for spiritualism, which he carried to the point of introducing a "Borderland" section in the *Review* and of making his office a sort of clearing-house for spiritistic records. If spiritualism ever proves its case and converts the world, Stead will doubtless figure among the faithful few who, in the early days, were unshaken by ridicule and misrepresentation. To his contemporaries, however, it seemed that Stead's efficacy as a reformer decreased in proportion as he spent more and more time across the border. For a long time before his death he waited on premonitions, and he believed implicitly in the reality of the spectral "Julia" and her messages. To students of psychic phenomena, his experience has some interest.

But it is Stead the publicist and editor who deserves most attention. Unquestionably, he exerted for a time wide influence on the British public. His support of Gladstonianism, his friendliness towards Russia during the period when Russophobia was John Bull's favorite malady, his stanch support of the peace movement, his championship of the oppressed regardless of their race, creed, or party, are among the positive achievements of Stead's career, while his attack on the "Maiden Tribute" seems to the present reviewer the most courageous act in modern journalism. To-day, when "white slavery" has become the topic of conversation in the nursery, and the agitation is carried on in ways which may do more harm than good, it is almost impossible to imagine the effect produced by Stead's "Apocalypse of Evil" in 1885. In England, as in other Anglo-Saxon countries, the policy had long before been adopted of assuming that the social evil did not exist because it was tacitly agreed not to mention it. When Stead broke through the silence, there was a momentary consternation among the partisans of Cant, and then they recovered their nerve and punished, not the monsters whom he had exposed, but Stead himself for exposing them! A legal quibble sufficed. Even Thomas Hardy has not imagined so fine an instance of the sardonic humor which sometimes comes uppermost in the affairs of men.

Stead took his imprisonment with religious rejoicing. "You have now the crown upon your work," Cardinal Manning wrote to him. The cynical said, of course, that he was a sensation-monger, who exploited his righteousness in order to procure notoriety. We moderns have grown skeptical of the business man who avowedly takes the Ten Commandments down to his office. So far as appears, however, Stead sincerely believed that in this crisis, and throughout his career, he was doing the Lord's work, and, certainly, he lost pecuniarily more than he gained by his fidelity to his visions. That vanity and piety may be intermingled, the lives of many very good men teach us.

Through his voice and pen the conscience of England found utterance on several matters of vital importance. Posterity, knowing him by his works, will probably value him more highly than did those of his contemporaries who judged him by his mannerisms or who suspected his motives. As the man who set himself to realize Lowell's "Pious Editor's Creed," just at the time when other editors began to see their profit in yellow journalism, he will not soon be forgotten. By one of the rare instances of poetic justice, his life, which had been crowded with dramatic incidents, closed in the wreck of the Titanic. One of the survivors, who put off in the last life-boat, says that Stead, having done all that he could for the embarkers, "stood alone at the edge of the deck, in silence, and, what seemed to me, a prayerful attitude, or one of profound meditation."

These reminiscences consist of many autobiographical passages, letters of more than personal interest, and the recollections furnished by friends—all put together and made clear by his daughter. She writes with simple fervor.

Notes

Dr. Benjamin Rand, of Harvard University, has two philosophical books in the Cambridge University Press (Putnam). One, entitled "Shaftesbury's Second Characters," will appear during the present month; the other, containing the "Unpublished Correspondence of Bishop Berkeley," will be completed in the spring. Both are the result of his researches in England and contain entirely new material on these great English philosophers.

Included in the announcements of Frederick A. Stokes Co. are the following: "Whispering Dust," by Eldrid Reynolds; "The Color of the East," by Elizabeth Washburn; "The Intriguers," by Harold Bindloss; "Sanctuary," by Percy MacKaye; "The Two Americas," by Rafael Reyes; "The Wine-Press," by Alfred Noyes, and "My Lady of the Chinese Courtyard," by Elizabeth Cooper.

We may expect shortly a new mystery story from the pen of Mary Roberts Rinehart, entitled "The After House." Houghton Mifflin Co. is the publisher.

Thomas Y. Crowell Co. will bring out this season: "The Education of Karl Witte, or the Training of the Child," translated by Professor Wiener, of Harvard, and edited by H. Addington Bruce; "The Message of New Thought," by Abel L. Allen; "How to Rest," by Grace Dawson; "The Deaf, their Position in Society," by Harry Best, and a large-type, thin-paper edition of Roget's "Thesaurus," edited by C. O. S. Mawson.

Among the publications promised by McClurg for January are "Will o' the Wasps," by Margaret W. Morley; "A Primer of Political Economy," by Alfred Bishop Mason, and "Earmarks of Literature," by Arthur E. Bostwick.

In the spring Desmond Fitz-Gerald will bring out "The Song of Labor," translated from the hundredth edition of Rudolph Herzog's "Die Wiskottens." Later the same house will bring out Herzog's collection of short stories entitled "Es giebt ein Glück."

The following volumes are announced for early publication by Small, Maynard & Company: "Mrs. Brand," by H. A. Mitchell Keays; "More About King Edward," by Edward Legge; "A Lady of Leisure," by Ethel Sidgwick; "Sunrise Valley," by Marion Hill, and "The Dog and the Child and the Ancient Sailor Man," by Robert Alexander Wason.

"The Treasure," by Kathleen Norris, and "The Philippines, Past and Present," by Dean C. Worcester, are among Macmillan's forthcoming books.

Mr. Clarence M. Burton, of Detroit, Mich., has presented to the Detroit Public Library his large collection of books and manuscripts relating to the history of the city. The collection contains 30,000 bound volumes, 100,000 pamphlets, 500,000 manuscripts, and 27,000 photographs of Detroit scenes, buildings, and personages. Included in Mr. Burton's gift are his home at No. 27 Brainard Street, and the three fireproof buildings used for his library. He has spent forty years in making the collection, and he now wishes to be sure that it shall be preserved intact.

The output of books in Great Britain in 1913, according to the *Bookseller*, was 8,473, or 595 less than in 1912. With the exception of annuals and serials, the only increase was in children's books and music. The greatest falling off was in political economy, the works on this subject numbering only 394, against 621 the previous year. There were also fewer works on law, art and archiecture, travel, and religion.

The Oxford University Press issues a report of "The Celebration of the Two Hundred and Fiftieth Anniversary of the Royal Society of London." The volume contains the many addresses, in Latin and English, sent to the Society on the occasion.

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To the series of Literary and Historical Atlases in Everyman's Library (Dutton) has now been added a volume on Africa and Australasia.

Scribners have now in hand the fourth "carefully revised" edition of Baedeker's "Spain and Portugal."

A "Who's Who in Japan" has reached its second annual edition, and shows a bulky volume of 1,317 pages with 134 additional pages as a supplement. The text is in English, although the names of Chinese and Japanese are given also in the native script. The book is imported by G. E. Stechert & Company.

Among George Meredith's later excursions into journalism was a series of dialogues contributed to the *Graphic* in 1873-4, under the title of "Up to Midnight," now reprinted in a thin volume by Luce. Their interest is bibliographical, not intrinsic, and the author would probably have felt as warmly upon their resurrection as he did towards the "ghoul" who threatened to search out his early leaders, in whose ears he wished the Commination Service thundered. A dozen men converse through five distinct evenings at the home of Sir John Saxon, upon such topics as the Franco-Prussian War, the Geneva Arbitration, Arctic Exploration, and Stanley and Livingstone. No character-drawing raises the attention above these outworn subjects, for the whole circle speak patently for Meredith. Nor has the talk even Meredithian merits. The author's esoteric qualities are distinctly out of place upon subjects proper to journalistic clarity, and an occasional glinting epigram scarcely lights up the waste of his pedagogic style.

An entertaining compilation is "A Century of Parody and Imitation" (Milford), by Walter Jerrold and R. M. Leonard; the title's significance lying in the fact that the publication of the "Rejected Addresses" of Horace and James Smith virtually established modern parody, which is brought down to the death of Andrew Lang. Living authors are excluded, and a few excellent examples, as R. F. Murray's "The Banished Bejant" and Aytoun and Martin's "The Queen in France," may be missed. But general completeness marks the book, even to the inclusion of poems valuable only as historical missteps in the growth of parody towards general good taste, while all, from Hogg's "The Flying Tailor" to Bunner's "Home, Sweet Home," are well indexed and well annotated.

Thomas Medwin's "Life of Percy Bysshe Shelley" was originally published in 1847. In later years Medwin amused himself, and worked off some of his accumulated rancor against Mary Shelley, by making large revisions of the work for a second edition, which was expected to appear, but did not appear, about the time of his death, in 1869. His copy of the book, with the revisions on the margins, fell, like so many other good things of this sort, into the hands of Mr. H. Buxton Forman, who has now issued an admirable reprint (Oxford University Press) with the author's proposed changes incorporated into the text. For annotations he has drawn largely on his extraordinary library of Shelleyan books and his no less extraordinary knowledge of the literary vagabondage of the period. Nothing is so obscure in Medwin's pages as to evade his elucidation; a book of which most fairly well read students of the romantic movement may never have heard is to him something which should be in any gentleman's library. In regard to Medwin himself he has no illusions; there is scarcely a quotation in Medwin's pages to the inaccuracy of which he does not call attention, and Medwin's mendacity and conceit would escape no one. But Mr. Forman is right, nevertheless, in placing high value on this biography as giving insight into the character of Shelley and his circle, though, as an ardent and full-souled worshipper of the poet, he apparently quite fails to see the damaging nature of such an admission. Medwin, indeed, was of his age, and there is in his views of life and in his manner of writing not a little which might be described as Shelley without Shelley's genius. On pages 139 and 140 of the present edition there will be found, for instance, as perfect an utterance of the romantic notion of sympathy, with its consequent sense of embittered isolation and its nature cult, as can be found in Shelley himself. It is romanticism bared to the quick.

One could scarcely get a more striking exhibit of the revolution which has taken place in the past decade in American office methods than that furnished in the volume, "The American Office," by J. William Schulze, assistant secretary of the Alexander Hamilton Institute of New York city, which has just been issued by the Key Publishing Co. It would be difficult to mention a single phase of office activity, whether relating to organization, physical arrangement, records, communication, distribution of activity and responsibility, or psychological factors, which the book does not consider. The scope and purpose of the work may be inferred from some of the chapter headings: Office Employees, Office Appliances, the Physical Office, How to Lay Out Floor Space, Creating the Office Organization, Training Office Employees, Supervision and Salary Plans, Methods of Arousing Enthusiasm, The Human Touch, Welfare Work, Office Records, and Systems. The book is full of charts and diagrams illustrating the relations between branches of the organization, photographs of model offices, and graphic devices for enforcing the points made by the author. Of course it is all in the nature of counsel of perfection; but he must be a dull person who cannot find here many practical suggestions, as well as a general spirit of enthusiasm likely to increase his interest in his own work. This book, says the author in his preface,

is intended primarily for three groups of people: (1) The young man in the office who is anxious to succeed and who is desirous of studying a book that will teach him standard office methods; (2) the student in the university or business school who aims to start his business career with a knowledge of American office practice; (3) the executive who realizes that, no matter how well he may believe his office is being managed, there are ideas and suggestions to be gathered from a study of other men's methods.

Prof. Leon Kellner, of the University of Czernowitz (Austria), who published four years ago, in German, a valuable history of "English Literature during the Age of Queen Victoria," has now supplemented this work with two tiny volumes, entitled "Geschichte der nordamerikanischen Literatur" (Göschen Collection). He has compressed into barely two hundred pages an extraordinary amount of information concerning American literature, and sketches its development with rapid strokes. Best of all, he contrives to let the great writers stand out in bold relief. His judgments are independent and incisive. Oliver Wendell Holmes evokes his greatest admiration. "The world has perhaps never seen so penetrating, keen-eyed, and, at the same time, so warm-hearted an optimist." Professor Kellner, known as an admirable translator, quotes a number of passages from the "Autocrat," aptly characterizes Holmes's address on "Mechanism in Thought and Morals," and remarks that the reader often enjoys Holmes's wit too much to appreciate his scientific importance and his deep seriousness. In Lowell Herr Kellner admires mainly the satirist and humorist, with his "pyrotechnics of delicious puns," though he does justice to his "glowing love of his country." In Longfellow he sees "the Herder of English literature," though he says that Longfellow "has perhaps taken Goethe's world literature somewhat too seriously." Herr Kellner speaks of Emerson's wide influence on modern German thought. His aphorisms are everywhere eagerly read, "while the great transcendental systems of Fichte, Schelling, and Hegel, on which Emerson's philosophical views are based, slumber, undisturbed by the great public, in the dust of the libraries."

In his chapter on our transcendental movement Professor Kellner speaks of the curious tendency in literature to put a common label on writers whom mere accident has brought together. "Emerson is miles apart from Alcott and Channing, yet they are mentioned together as 'transcendentalists,' just as Wordsworth and Southey, who intellectually had but little in common, have been handed down to posterity as members of the Lake School of Poetry." Nevertheless, in some way, striking if not altogether convincing, Herman Melville and Walt Whitman are drawn by Professor Kellner himself into intellectual kinship with the transcendentalists. Howells and James come in for discriminating appreciation. Of their "self-conscious art," it is said that "artists, in their endeavor to escape the yoke of their subject, often commit the mistake of working without any material, and thus trying to make bricks without straw." We can only allude to the telling characterizations of Hawthorne, Poe, Whittier, and Mark Twain, the last of whom, of course, occupies the most prominent place in the chapter on The Humor of Exaggeration. That on The Literature of the Soil is appropriately ushered in by Bret Harte, and is continued through Edward Eggleston, Joel Chandler Harris, and James Lane Allen to the present day, closing with a brief survey of the writers produced by individual States. Even Iowa and Wyoming are not missing from Professor Kellner's list. As evidence of his familiarity with all the phases of his subject, we may point to his remarks on Sidney Lanier, Eugene Field, and Henry C. Bunner. The American short-story gets its full share of attention, and even George Ade's "Fables in Slang" are remembered. But nearly everything in the two little volumes will be found full of interest to German readers, and much deserves to be read by Americans. We know

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of no similar manual of American literature in the English language, as a comparison with some such volumes as Henry A. Beers's "Initial Studies in American Literature" and with the American addition to Stopford A. Brooke's "English Literature" will disclose.

Mr. John Masefield's "Salt-Water Ballads" and "A Mainsail Haul" (Macmillan) are not likely to affect his reputation particularly in one way or the other. They are earlier productions and are now reprinted presumably in view of their author's amazing popularity. The second volume consists of a rather miscellaneous collection of prose, much of which seems like hack work. The first volume is sufficiently characterized by its title; its verse is comparatively inoffensive—hardly more than a little tarry in patches. The best thing in it is what Mr. Masefield calls "A Consecration," wherein he defines his mission as poet:

> Others may sing of the wine and the wealth and the mirth,
> The portly presence of potentates goodly in girth;—
> Mine be the dirt and the dross, the dust and scum of the earth!

The seventh volume of "The Vulgate Version of the Arthurian Romances" (The Carnegie Institution of Washington), edited by H. O. Sommer, offers as a supplement to the vulgate cycle the "Merlin" continuation or "Livre d'Artus" of MS. 337 (Bibliothèque Nationale), in so far as this continuation differs essentially from that of the vulgate cycle. The contents of this continuation are well known from the very minute analysis of it which was given by E. Freymond many years ago in the *Zeitschrift für französische Sprache und Literatur XVII;* but no analysis, of course, can take the place of the text itself, so that the present volume constitutes a welcome addition to our materials for the study of the evolution of the prose romances. One might imagine from Dr. Sommer's prefatory note that the title "Livre d'Artus" was applied exclusively to the text which he has here published. But, as a matter of fact, Paulin Paris, who invented it, first employed it of the "Merlin" continuation of the vulgate cycle; and ever since it has been used as a general designation of works which were composed with a view to connecting the prose version of Robert de Boron's "Merlin" with the prose "Lancelot." Indeed, Dr. Sommer's volume does not contain the whole of the "Livre d'Artus" as given in MS. 337, for he omits (very properly) the earlier portion which does not differ in any noteworthy respect from the ordinary text of the vulgate "Merlin" continuation. But apart from the unwarranted restriction of the term "Livre d'Artus" to the text here printed, why should he say that its place in MS. 337 suggests that it is "a suite or continuation of the Vulgate-'Merlin'"—that is, a continuation of a continuation? Obviously not. The manuscript arrangement merely suggests that the present text was to be substituted for what we may call the second division of the vulgate "Livre d'Artus" or "Merlin" continuation. Dr. Sommer expresses the opinion that both the vulgate continuation and the present text are "*redactions* of an account of the reigns of Uterpendragon and Artus made at different dates for the purpose of linking Robert's 'Merlin' to the 'Lancelot.'" If he means by this that the two works are connected with each other, only through a common hypothetical source, we believe that he will find few Arthurian scholars to agree with him. It has been generally assumed that the present text was dependent on the vulgate, and we see no reason to call that view into question.

Dr. Sommer advances also the theory that this text in an earlier form "already figured in the *Joseph-Perceval-Lancelot* cycle as such a link and markedly influenced the *Lancelot*. The present text is part of a later *rifacimento* added by some scribe to the Vulgate-Cycle and—paradoxical as it may sound—it is considerably influenced by the *Lancelot*." That a lost "Perceval" romance ever constituted an integral part of the cycle of prose romances which in its extant form we call the vulgate is, itself, by no means an established fact, but apart from this the hypothesis here stated by Dr. Sommer is extremely improbable. We have no manuscript evidence of an earlier form, and no one is likely to accept so complicated a theory of the relations of our romance to the "Lancelot" except in the face of the strongest proof. Now, as in the present publication the editor makes virtually no effort to supply such proof (for one or two brief footnotes cannot be regarded seriously in that light), we believe that current opinions on the subject will for the present remain what they have been. As in the previous volumes, Dr. Sommer reproduces his text from the MS. without editing it—only in this case he has capitalized proper names, which is an improvement, inasmuch as in some degree it aids the reader in following the story. On the other hand, he has omitted the analysis of the narrative in side-notes which has been so useful a feature of the earlier volumes in the series. He was doubtless compelled to do this by the considerations of health which are mentioned in the publisher's note inserted at the beginning of the volume. We hope sincerely, however, that he will be able to complete his work with the "General Analytical Index" which he has promised. Such an index would be of inestimable service in the study of these vast prose romances.

The death at the age of sixty-one is reported from Glasgow of the Celtic scholar, Henry Whyte, better known under the pen-name "Fionn." A number of volumes on Celtic subjects, translations of Gaelic literature into English, and his preservation of many Highland melodies comprise his contributions to scholarship.

We record with regret the death of William Edward Armytage Axon, which took place at his home in Manchester, England, on December 27. Mr. Axon was a valued contributor to the *Nation's* Bibliophile columns, where he displayed an extraordinary familiarity with pleasant byways of literature. He was born in Manchester in 1846. At fifteen years of age he became an assistant in the Manchester Free Libraries and from 1874 to 1905 he was on the staff of the *Manchester Guardian* as office librarian. Though lacking a college education, his constant association with books, joined with unremitting industry, made him a scholar in a noble sense; he was admitted to many learned societies, received from the Wilberforce University the degree of LL.D., and—a degree which he greatly prized—the master of arts (*honoris causa*) from the University of Manchester, which was presented to him during his last illness. Mr. Axon contributed to encyclopædias and magazines too numerous to be here recorded. He also wrote and edited a number of books, linguistic, religious, archæological, and poetical.

Henrietta Keddie, the novelist, who wrote under the name of Sarah Tyler, died last Thursday in London, in her eighty-seventh year. She began her literary work while conducting a boarding school for girls at the town of her birth, Cupar-Fife. A list of her works includes the following: "Citoyenne Jacqueline," "French Janet," "The Macdonald Lass," "Miss Nance," "Women Must Weep," and "Three Generations."

Samuel Augustus Binion, who died suddenly in New York last Thursday, was born in Suwalki, Poland, in 1853, and was the author of several books, among them "Ancient Egypt," "The Baballah," "Phyllanthography," etc.

The death is reported from Dublin of Dr. Patrick Weston Joyce, an Irish scholar of repute, who was born in 1827. He was educated in private schools and entered the service of the Commissioners of National Education of Ireland in 1845. He occupied successive positions with the commissioners until 1874, when he became a professor in the Commissioners' Training College at Dublin. He subsequently became principal of the College. In 1893 he retired from that position, but later became one of the commissioners for the publication of the Ancient Laws of Ireland. He received the degrees of M.A. and LL.D from Trinity College, Dublin. Dr. Joyce's published works include "The Origin and History of Irish Names of Places," "Ancient Irish Music," in which he collected hitherto unpublished Irish airs and songs; "Old Celtic Romances," a collection of thirteen Irish stories translated from the Gaelic; "A Short History of Ireland to 1608," "A Child's History of Ireland," and "Social History of Ancient Ireland."

Science

ALEXANDER AGASSIZ.

Letters and Recollections of Alexander Agassiz. With a Sketch of his Life Work. Edited by G. R. Agassiz. Boston: Houghton Mifflin Co. $3.50 net.

Seldom does a biography record a more extraordinary personality and career than that of Alexander Agassiz as told by his eldest son. During a boyhood of narrow means in Europe, after his father, the great naturalist, Louis Agassiz, had come to the United States, he walked from one town to another to visit his relatives, and slept on the way under a haystack or in the house of a friendly peasant, when "almost anybody would give such a tiny traveller a piece of bread or a bit of cheese," as he used afterwards to say. In his mature years in America he developed and became president of a great mining company, a man of well-earned wealth, a leader in

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zoölogy and oceanography, builder of a great museum, and Fellow of the Harvard Corporation; in his later life he was the most active explorer of coral reefs the world has known, president of the American Academy of Arts and Sciences in Boston and of the National Academy of Sciences in Washington, and honorary member of many foreign academies. He may well be regarded as the most eminent American of foreign birth that the present generation has seen: our country should be proud of having been his opportunity.

Agassiz was born December 17, 1835, in Neuchâtel, then belonging to Prussia. His father, Louis, a Swiss, our great teacher-naturalist, needs no introduction to American readers. His mother, Cécile Braun, a German, was a woman of "shy, sensitive, reserved, and artistic" temperament, and it was evidently from her, rather than from his father, that the son inherited certain well-marked personal qualities which tended to limit his acquaintance all through life; for while warmly regarded by the intimate friends who knew his charm, their circle was restricted, and upon outsiders he never exerted the wonderful attraction that endeared his father to thousands. It was only within this circle that he would show not only the superb Victoria Research medal, awarded him by the Royal Geographical Society of London, but also his delight in having it: to those outside the wall he showed neither. After his mother's death, the boy came to the United States in 1849, and was fortunate in loving and in being loved by his father's second wife, Elizabeth Cary Agassiz, a most admirable woman, who might well have been the prototype of the good stepmother, discovered as a new kind of heroine by modern writers; fortunate again in his wife, Anna Russell, a most lovely girl, his pupil in his mother's school, who "knew the speech of courage and of kindness," and whom he married in 1860, but who died in 1874, a week after his father's death, leaving him a saddened man, more reserved than before. He bravely found refuge in unceasing and increasing work. He had even as a boy abundant courage, and as a man great strength, though not of robust health. He always had his own opinions, and never feared to express them: in his early school years at Neuchâtel, he refused to receive certain prizes from an official whom he disliked, turned his back upon him, and walked out of the room. In consequence of the row that followed he led a band of young confederates to attack the castle of the Prussian Governor, and smashed the windows of the dining-hall on the night of a large party at which his father was present. The father, suspecting his boy of having a hand in the affair, hurried home, but there found Alex in bed and apparently asleep. The young Prussian was made to study the violin, which he loathed; so when he left Germany for America, he celebrated his departure from the land of compulsion to the land of freedom by jumping on his violin and smashing it. He was bow oar of the Harvard University crew in the middle 50's, and always retained his fondness for rowing: in later years he occasionally appeared at the Museum so hoarse that he could hardly speak, and would sheepishly admit that he had been to a boat race the day before, and perhaps he "had shouted too loud."

In spite of Agassiz's habitual reserve, he was of short temper, and easily provoked to "speak his mind," and on occasions did not withhold it even concerning one of his fellow-oarsmen, who gave Harvard, among several other things, its crimson color-emblem. Agassiz was, moreover, over-sensitive to adverse opinion, and less patient in discussion with those who differed from him than in his own work. He never sought to appear before the public, but rather withdrew from it, for he had nothing of his father's gift of scientific oratory; but he was of great force, long persistence, and enormous accomplishment. It is in this respect that his life was so altogether exceptional, and yet most of his work was done in comparatively poor health, and under the shadow of sad bereavement. His first large task was the development in 1867-68 of certain unsuccessful copper mines, later combined in the famous Calumet and Hecla Company, on Keweenaw Point in upper Michigan. Let it be here remembered that, just turned thirty, he had had almost no training in business methods or in mining technique; that he had been brought up by a father who "possessed a hazy idea of the value of a dollar," and whose money affairs were sometimes "in a more than usually deplorable muddle." He had, to be sure, after graduating at Harvard without distinction in 1855, studied engineering and chemistry in the Lawrence Scientific School, and he may have learned a little of bookkeeping when, as teacher in his mother's school for girls in Cambridge, he paid the other teachers and kept the accounts; he had for a short time worked for the United States Coast Survey in the Far Northwest, and on returning to Cambridge in 1860 he took charge of Radiates in his father's Museum, where for six years he had some more experience in accounts and in the "disentanglement of the financial difficulties into which the cheerful optimism of his father constantly plunged not only the Museum, but also the family purse"; and for a brief period he had the management of a coal property in Pennsylvania. It was on the basis of this largely irrelevant experience that Agassiz, early in 1867, was placed in charge of the Calumet and Hecla properties, an appointment probably influenced by the fact that his two sisters had married Boston men, of whom one was then and the other later became largely interested in the mines. He put in "every cent" he had—some of it borrowed—and went to work with the avowed intention of making money so that he could afterwards spend it in becoming a "productive naturalist." He met incompetence, misrepresentation, mismanagement, and disloyalty, and overcame them all. Expenses were unexpectedly great and assessments had to be levied; a brother-in-law provided the sum called on Agassiz's stock. He was "driven to death" at one time, "fearfully blue" at another, and "some days in utter despair." His brave wife joined him in the wilderness with a young boy and a baby; when she went out for a walk she carried a revolver strapped to her belt. Winter weather was severe, accidents in and about the mines caused delay and cost money, and put a heavy strain on the man in charge. In spite of all setbacks, the mines were in good working order near the end of 1868, when Agassiz returned to Cambridge. He was made president of the company in 1871, and held that office till his death, thirty-nine years later. Under his management the company paid its stockholders the fabulous sum of $110,550,000.

And yet this was only the by-product of a man whose real life interest was abstract science; for the mine once in running order, he set it aside, except for visits of a month, spring and autumn, and plunged into work at the Museum. On November 8, 1868, he wrote to seventeen scientific correspondents, and said to one, in reply to a letter of a year and a half earlier: "Thank Heaven, I am now done with copper mines, and have returned with all my heart to my studies, which I hope nothing again will interrupt." But the strain of work at the mines had injured his health; he was severely ill in the spring of 1869. A year abroad was then made possible by the generosity of a Boston friend, and he spent the time visiting museums preparatory to his famous work on sea urchins. It is interesting to note that he carried a letter from his father to Darwin, in which the elder Agassiz wrote: "You will find Alex more ready to accept your views than I shall ever be." He saw countless zoölogists, fretted over the unnecessary formalities and delays in many museums, felt melancholy on seeing how low the French had fallen through governmental corruption, was mistaken for Bismarck on the frontier during the Franco-Prussian War, and returned home in November, 1870. Although he lost a year's work by the

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burning of many original drawings in the great Boston fire, his first large publication, the "Revision of the Echini" (770 pages, 87 plates), appeared in 1872 as a four-part memoir, of which he wrote: "Nothing pleased me more than to have been able to present the cost of these volumes to the Museum." Then with a great scientific career well opened before him, in the middle year of his life came an overwhelming blow, the death of his father and his wife, and for a time he could find no incentive for further study. But he soon set bravely to work to complete the great Museum which his father had planned and as his father had planned it, and then began an unrivalled series of explorations in all the oceans of the world. His voyages far exceed those of any other scientific investigator. Forceful as he was in these great undertakings, he was minutely painstaking and cautious in his work. His wide acquaintance with the outdoor world taught him the complexity of things, and forbade alike a hasty statement of conclusions of his own and a hasty acceptance of conclusions reached by more hurried contemporaries. This was particularly true regarding the theory of organic evolution, which, as his father foresaw, he accepted as a general principle, but without admitting the correctness of elaborate schemes of descent devised by others whom he thought over-rash. So in his study of coral reefs, he insisted on the great variety of the phenomena and on the necessity of recognizing many theories of origin, rather than only one. He was offered the position of Superintendent of the Coast Survey in 1885, but refused it because he felt himself unfit for a post that should be filled by a mathematician or a physicist, and also because he did not wish to sacrifice his own scientific work. In 1904 he was offered the direction of an expedition, to be liberally subsidized for five years by the Carnegie Institution of Washington, to explore the tropical Pacific, but refused because of his age, sixty-nine; had this opportunity come five years earlier he would have "jumped at it." It is more of a loss to science than to Agassiz that he declined it.

His death occurred in the mid-Atlantic, March 27, 1910, on his way home from a winter in Egypt, with his second son, Maximilian, his companion on many journeys: he was laid in Forest Hills Cemetery beside the wife of his youth, whom he had buried there thirty-six years before. Those who were privileged to know him well found a nature which they loved as much as they admired, and what they tell excites envy of their privilege among others to whom it was not granted.

McClurg has in press a new volume in the National Social Science series, entitled "The Family and Society," by John M. Gillette.

Dr. Edward O. Otis is the author of a new volume on "Consumption, its Cause, Cure and Prevention," which is announced by Crowell.

Prof. Winslow Upton, for nearly thirty years head of the department of astronomy at Brown University and director of the Ladd Observatory since its erection in 1891, died last Thursday at the Rhode Island Hospital, in Providence. He was born in Salem, Mass., in 1853. He received degrees from Brown University and the University of Cincinnati. He became an assistant at the Harvard Observatory in 1877; assistant engineer of the United States Lake Survey in 1879; computer of the United States Naval Observatory in 1880; computer and assistant professor of the United States Signal Service in 1881, and professor at Brown in 1883. He published a "Star Atlas" for schools in 1896.

Drama

The New American Drama. By Richard Burton. New York: Thomas Y. Crowell Co. $1.25 net.

The author of this book, professor of English literature in the University of Minnesota, exhibits a thorough acquaintance with modern theatrical products in this country, of which he furnishes a scholarly summary, but some of the conclusions which he derives from his review suggest that his critical faculty is defective. His judgment is too subservient to his enthusiasm for the newest forms of drama and to a spirit of optimism which would confer the laurels of achievement upon every crude attempt. Yet he has a clear view of the true functions of the theatre, "with its rootages in play, in religion, and the universal love of life," and argues for it, ably and vigorously, at the beginning and end of the volume. He maintains that the tremendous influence of which the stage, in its different manifestations, is capable, should be subject to the same sort of intelligent direction that is employed in orchestras and libraries. He does not, however, solve the problem how such a beneficial censorship—more and more favored by thoughtful persons—is to be established. The principle is simple but the application of it intensely difficult. Professor Burton easily riddles the old managerial plea that the public must have what it wants, and points out that, even if it were sound, it would not militate against the more enlightened policy of helping playgoers to appreciate and look for superior entertainment. He adds, justly, that the managers are not alone to blame in this matter, but that a certain measure of responsibility rests upon the cultivated and respectable members of the community who remain apathetic.

When he comes to comparisons of the existing theatre and that of the preceding generation, the latest types of stage performers and their predecessors, he betrays the lack of personal experience and of intimacy with actual theatrical conditions. He is more of the theorist than the expert. He does not know the capacities of the older actors or the part which the old stock companies played in their education. Apparently, he imagines that a modern dramatic school can supply all the stage education really needed, and that the chief accomplishment of the old performers was artificial and monotonous declamation. The effect of this delusion, manifestly arising from inexperience, is shown when he undertakes, somewhat superfluously, to defend the general public from the charge of incapacity to appreciate the higher poetic drama. In advancing various reasons for the comparative failure of certain costly productions of poetical drama, he omits the most weighty of all, the present dearth of actors trained to speak verse decently or to interpret imaginative works with appropriate spirit and action. There is abundant proof, past and present, that the general public always has been and still is ready to support poetic drama when well played. It will not pay to see it butchered. The modern theatrical school, with which the Professor is so content, only produces actors fitted for the plays of modern life. Actors of the old school could be realistic or romantic as occasion demanded. If the stage is to reflect the manners and the literature of more than one time, and that the present, we must have actors who can embody other characters than their own.

In his chapter on Truth, dealing with plays of American life, he sings the praises of most of the native playwrights, from Bronson Howard and James A. Hearne to Eugene Walter, and no doubt they have contributed some solid material towards the foundations of an American drama. But in his zeal for actuality he fails to discriminate between the plays which have depended entirely on melodramatic violence—the mere shockers—and the much rarer serious works constructed upon legitimate dramatic principles, and reflecting the truth of nature in the conflict of circumstance and character. Many of the pieces which he enumerates have no real artistic or dramatic significance. The critical praise which he bestows, under the head of "Romance," upon the plays of Moody, MacKaye, Mrs. Marks, and Rann Kennedy, is amply justified, but his definition of "romance" must be extraordinarily elastic if it can be made to include the great majority of the plays which he groups under that category. Many of these are flagrant examples of a most pernicious variety of melodramatic extravagance. The char-

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acteristic attributes of romance are beauty, imagination, and essential truth, the three qualities in which all such pieces are conspicuously deficient. In discoursing of humor and the social note, Professor Burton reveals powers of observation and comparison which might have been applied with profit to more than one of his preceding chapters. He is apt to be happier in the enunciation of his theories than in the illustration of them by particulars.

McClurg announces at an early date "The Green Cockatoo and Other Plays," by Arthur Schnitzler, and "Gerhart Hauptmann, his Life and Work," by Karl Holl.

Profs. W. A. Neilson and A. H. Thorndike, general editors of the Tudor Shakespeare, have brought this edition (Macmillan) to completion with a volume devoted to "The Facts About Shakespeare." As an example of what accredited American scholarship can accomplish, the book, as indeed the whole edition, is most instructive. What stands out is, as might be expected, the mass of details taken into account and the caution with which they are handled. Here is German industry combined with Yankee common-sense. The work differs from recent English editions of Shakespeare, for example, the Eversley, edited by Professor Herford, in the almost entire absence of æsthetic and philosophical criticism. It is a serious lack, especially in an edition designed for use in schools and colleges, which should endeavor to whet the student's imagination and zest. But of its kind the Tudor Shakespeare is by far the most trustworthy edition in existence. Its special virtues are perhaps best illustrated, in the present volume, by the chapter on Biographical Facts and Traditions. In no other place have we seen so succinct and orderly an interpretation of the credible documents bearing on Shakespeare's life; this is followed by an enumeration of the rumors and hearsay, the origin of each being stated, which for two centuries after his death strove to clothe the skeleton of fact with picturesque, often fantastic details. Everybody is familiar with the gossip which charged Shakespeare with poaching on the preserves of Sir Thomas Lucy, but interest is added to the rumor by knowledge of its source. In the chapter on Shakespeare's Reading, the list of books with which he must have been acquainted is also nicely based on the evidence. In this connection it might have been well to indicate more fully the advantage to which Shakespeare turned his reading, that is, the manner in which his imagination assimilated and recast it. There are enough striking instances of the sort which could have been drawn from Plutarch, Holinshed, and especially Sidney's "Arcadia" to warrant a few illuminating generalizations. In plan the book, though a work of collaboration, is thoroughly consistent and even; but the styles of the two writers are easily distinguishable, the one open, sometimes loose, the other compact yet clear.

Romance, in all its shapes, has been excluded from the local stage for so long in favor of the crudest forms of "realistic" melodrama that the successful production of such a piece as Percy MacKaye's "A Thousand Years Ago" in the Shubert Theatre is particularly welcome. This is not, in any sense, a great work, but it is entertaining and has literary qualities of an uncommon kind. The story is the very old one, of the princess whose hand was to be the reward of any suitor who might be willing to lose his head if he could not solve her riddles. Not long ago she was the heroine in a spectacle by Reinhardt, which had a great success in Europe, but failed badly in London, probably on account of inadequate performance. Now she is called Turandot, daughter of the Emperor of Peking.

Mr. MacKaye follows the ancient tale closely enough in its main incidents, but freshens it by bringing in the comparatively modern figures of the Italian Commedia del' Arte, Scaramouch, Harlequin, and Pantaloon, as inspiring motives. These, under the leadership of Capocomico, come as strolling players to Peking, having been banished from their usual haunts by modern materialistic critics, and virtually control the whole action. In a prologue, Capocomico bewails the banishment of romance from the theatre, its legitimate field, and cites the fantasy of which he is to be the protagonist as sufficient justification for its recall. He pledges himself to cure the princess of her aversion to matrimony in twenty-four hours, under penalty of death, if constituted emperor for that period, and the Chinese monarch promptly takes him at his word. Having discovered that the beggar with whom the princess is in love, and to whom she has thrown a rose, is identical with the Prince who is her latest suitor, Capocomico is able, of course, after the necessary complications, to fulfil his promise within the prescribed period. The element of suspense naturally is slight, as the issue is never in doubt, but Mr. MacKaye has handled his theme with a good sense of theatrical effect and has supplied dialogue of a vastly superior order to that of most modern spectacles. Several of his scenes exhibit graceful fancy, and one, at least—that in the prince's chamber—considerable dramatic force. The representation is also notable for some highly effective scenery, in which modern methods of lighting and coloring are employed. A dream scene, with shadow pictures, and the scene in the prince's chamber, with part of the stage lighted and part in cimmerian darkness, were especially striking. The City Gate at Peking and the Great Hall of the Emperor were also remarkable instances of the effects of spaciousness and gorgeousness to be obtained by the judicious disposition of simple draperies broadly painted. In their detail some of the sets were not altogether satisfactory, but in general design they were admirable and nicely appropriate to the fantastic theme. The acting was less felicitous than the play and its decorations, but Henry E. Dixey, as Capocomico, was a fascinating and graceful figure, and the veteran F. B. Warde demonstrated the value of an old-school training. He knew how to act and to speak.

The Scottish Repertory Theatre is to resume at an early date. The directors have arranged a spring season, which will begin at the Royalty Theatre, Glasgow, on January 19. Lewis Casson, who was principal producer for Miss Horniman's company at Manchester, is to be stage director and principal producer. The company will include several former members of the Scottish Repertory Company and others who have experience in repertory work. It is proposed to open the season with a revival of Arnold Bennett's comedy "The Honeymoon," with which there will be played a stage adaptation of Rudyard Kipling's "Badalia." Other productions will probably include, in addition to several entirely new plays, a characteristic example of the work of Bernard Shaw, one of Sir J. M. Barrie's earlier comedies, and an adaptation of one of R. L. Stevenson's short stories.

In the death of William Hawtrey the stage loses an actor of much sound capacity—if not much brilliancy—who was overshadowed by the popularity of his brother, Charles. He had acted in this country for fifteen years, and was associated with more than one emphatic success, but never established a position for himself in the first rank. Nevertheless, he knew his art, was capable of giving vitality to scenes of emotional power and pathos, and, in respect of versatility, was far superior to his more famous brother. But he lacked that peculiar vein of comedy which made Charles's fame and fortune. When they acted together in this city some years ago, William won his full share of applause without difficulty. "The Fire of Fate," "We Can't Be as Bad as All That," and "The Old Firm" were among the pieces in which he was prominent. He died in the New York Hospital, having been stricken suddenly in a trolley car. His age was fifty-seven years.

Music

"Richard Wagner, the Man and his Work," by Oliver Huckel, is announced by Crowell.

"Familiar Talks on the History of Music" is the title of a book just published by the Schirmers. The author is Arnold J. Gantvoort, of the Cincinnati College of Music.

Albert Spalding, the American violinist, has not only been winning fresh laurels abroad, but he has just given to his fellow players, through the publishing house of G. Schirmer, six pieces for violin and piano, which are worth considering. They are strongly reminiscent of Mr. Spalding's long sojourn in Italy, two of them (a "Siciliano" and a "Scherzo Giocoso") being dedicated to teachers under whom he studied in that country, and another ("Romance in C Minor") being built on the cry of a street-vender of oranges in Florence.

Frederick Corder and the London *Musical Times* are agreed that it is time to stop teaching counterpoint according to the artificial rules sanctioned by mythical authority, and follow the rules deduced from the practice of the acknowledged masters of the art. "We all," says the *Times*, "bow down to Bach as the great exemplar of the possibilities of counterpoint, yet at the same time our self-imposed rules show him to be so wrong that he would not pass an elementary examination."

The memory of America's great folksong

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writer, Stephen Collins Foster, will be appropriately honored at a commemorative concert, consisting entirely of American compositions, to be given by the Modern Music Society (chorus of 100), and the New York Symphony orchestra, at Aeolian Hall, Friday evening, February 13, 1914. Maggie Teyte will be the soloist, and a feature of the programme will be a group of Foster's songs, including the universally loved "Old Black Joe" and "Suwanee River," in new harmonizations made by Benjamin Lambord, the conductor, which, while enriching the effect, entirely preserve the original spirit of the songs. Other numbers of the programme will be orchestral compositions by MacDowell and Henry F. Gilbert, works for chorus by Edward Burlingame Hill, Blair Fairchild, and Benjamin Lambord, and songs with orchestra by Arthur Farwell and John Alden Carpenter.

Mascagni was made famous largely by the winsome brevity of his "Cavalleria Rusticana." He has now gone to the opposite extreme. His latest opera, "Parisina," written in collaboration with D'Annunzio, lasted till two in the morning at the first performance in Milan. When it was repeated, the whole of the fourth act was left out.

Art

Mural Painting in America. By Edwin Howland Blashfield. New York: Charles Scribner's Sons. Illustrated. $2 net.

Ignoring the unsuccessful attempts to decorate the Capitol at Washington, we may date the revival of mural painting in America from John La Farge's decoration of Trinity Church, Boston, in 1876. Significantly it was the architect Richardson who got the commission for the painter. For thirty years to come La Farge was greatly to depend upon such architect friends as Hunt and McKim. In 1878, W. M. Hunt achieved the short-lived decorations for the Albany Capitol. Then, except for La Farge's steady activity, the movement languished until in 1893 the Columbian Exposition at Chicago employed, under F. D. Millet and C. Y. Turner as artist chiefs, Beckwith, Blashfield, Cox, Reid, Simmons, and others. The effect of these decorations, hastily improvised as they had to be, was such that mural painting came to be expected in all public monumental buildings. A few years later the completion of the Congressional Library at Washington still further popularized the movement.

Mr. Blashfield is an eminently fitting person to record and moralize a generation of achievement in which he personally has played a prominent and creditable part. His book, an amplification of the Scammon Lectures, delivered last year before the Chicago Art Institute, treats chiefly the business side of mural painting—the relations of artist, decorator, architect, and building commissioner. We feel that this is a just emphasis—and, for that matter, Mr. Blashfield deals also with the education of the mural painter—because the defects of the new movement are plainly chargeable in great measure to divided responsibility and ill-adjusted business relations.

Suppose a building commission safely piloted by the architect beyond local favorites and the alluring estimates of decorating firms to the choice of a capable mural painter, there are still many chances of failure. The mural painting is, after all, only the most important feature of a complex interior decoration. The professional decorator who does the minor work is not subject to the painter's control; both work under the remote and often indifferent jurisdiction of the architect. The estimates are cut so narrowly that the painter cannot provide the incidental and reinforcing decoration which would put his work in place. Indeed, he has no right to intrude in the decorator's field. The building commissioner and his associates are a constant source of difficulty. For reasons of convenience, the lighting of a room may be completely changed; for reasons of economy one lining stone or wood may be substituted for another. The mural painting meanwhile is in active progress, and for better or worse must fit into a light and surroundings for which it was never intended. In any case, the painting must often be adjusted to a room which is seen only in imagination. Puvis painted the designs for the staircase of the Boston Public Library from the architect's drawings and a sample of Siena marble. Had he seen the actual structure, we might have had quite a different color scheme.

Mr. Blashfield's remedy for this confusion is, first, that the architect should use his authority more strongly, and, next, that every room should be put in charge of one artist, who should be responsible for harmonizing all the details of the decoration. Undoubtedly, a certain relief might thus be procured, but these seem to us only palliatives. A mural painter's studio should be organized so that all the decorative work could be done by his own assistants. In the Renaissance this was a matter of course. At times John La Farge's studio approximated this perfection of organization. Nothing short of this as an ideal will serve, and if the amount of business involved be objected to, it should be said that no painter without organizing capacity has any business with mural painting. What is necessary is that the mural painter should work with artisans who know his ways and whom he can control. By allying himself with a decorating firm, this kind of assistance can be got. It is the obvious course for a mural painter who is unwilling or unable to organize a working studio. It should be said, too, that the best decorative ensembles in America, not necessarily the best wall paintings, have been those of the professional decorators. Their shops provide the only form of artistic organizations in which an artist of the Golden Age would find himself at all at home.

Either the architect should turn over the whole decorations of a room to the mural painter, or he should not order the pictures until the room is finished. The attempt to come out even results in painting pictures for paper rooms. A lamentable example of the practice is the Congressional Library. These are matters of common-sense and business technique. A graver defect of the present system of mural painting is that the work is done in a poor medium and in the studio. We have the absurdity of painters imitating the effects of fresco and tempera in oils, and the greater absurdity of painting a picture on a mere guess of what its lighting and surroundings are to be. We do not hold fanatically that all mural work should be done in place, but we do feel that a really competent decorator should be able to work in place and under conditions as taxing as those which confronted the fresco painter. In fact, nothing could better tone up modern mural painting than a revival of fresco painting. That would enforce methodical and competent execution with monumental simplicity of design. To-day the whole thing is too facile, and three-quarters of the mural painting in America betrays only the prevalent easy eclecticism. Very few have the gift of La Farge and Vedder of infusing such eclecticism with a distinguished and personal mood.

We agree with Mr. Blashfield in finding it a gain that mural painting is generally wanted. The infelicities of the product are perhaps no more than should be expected in work often produced under cruel limitations of money and time. At least opportunity is offered to the artist. His task is to achieve such higher gravity and competence that building commissioners will trust him more completely and treat him more generously. It is a question at bottom of culture and education, both for the artist and for his employers. On all these matters Mr. Blashfield offers advice well considered in substance and attractive in form. We wish his book a wide reading.

Mr. Percy Gardner is bringing out, through Macmillan, "The Principles of Greek Art."

A distinct land-mark in archæological research, and a new standard in publishing the results of South American archæology, have been set by Prof. R. Verneau and Dr. P. Rivet in their "Ethnographie ancienne de l'Équateur" (Paris: Gauthier-Villars). The treatment of the subject from the historical point of view is highly satisfactory;

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the field work, carried on in connection with the French military commission, which measured an arc of the equatorial meridian in the years 1899-1906, has produced excellent results. The plates are marvels of the photographic art, and the authors are to be highly congratulated in having been able to reproduce stone, bronze, and pottery so artistically and with such verisimilitude. Two other volumes are promised, bringing the anthropology of Ecuador down to date. If they maintain the high standard which has been set by the present volume, the authors will indeed have earned a high place in South American research. The chief drawback to the utility of this scholarly quarto is the use, in the multitudinous notes, of numerical references to a bibliography "to be published later."

Finance

ALLOTTING "REGIONAL BANKS."

It was a foregone conclusion, when the conference committee of House and Senate decided on a minimum of eight regional banks for the new banking system (with a discretionary maximum of twelve), that a vigorous campaign would at once be started by each of the principal cities of the Union to procure the allotment of such a regional institution to itself. It should be evident that this competitive movement was bound to be more aggressive, and, on the whole, the adjustment of the rival claims more difficult, with the larger number of such Federal reserve districts.

In stipulating twelve such districts, the original House bill overlooked the necessity for strong institutions. It also missed the other considerations that harmonious action would be progressively more difficult in proportion to their number; that the disparity between the district including New York or Chicago and those covering less powerful industrial communities would be emphasized by it, and, not least of all, that a regional bank's rediscounting power would be greatly hampered if it served a district whose industrial activities were not diversified enough to distribute their demands on credit over more than a single season. The Hitchcock amendment, naming only four such districts, recognized these facts; but the conference committee compromised with its minimum of eight and maximum of twelve.

If the New York district were to be one of only four such banking areas, the task of geographical delimitation would not be difficult. But the larger number at once started controversy, in last week's hearings of the Organization Committee, named in the Act to arrange the districts. It raised the question, whether a regional institution at New York should serve the district of which this city is at present the central money market—a district including all of New England, New York, New Jersey, and possibly Pennsylvania—or whether, in order to equalize the strength of the several allotted districts, this Eastern territory should itself be divided.

The weight of testimony has undoubtedly been to the effect that the New York regional bank should be such as to possess a maximum of financial resources. It should be powerful enough, in capital resources and in its scope of authority, to perform the duties which will be imposed upon it, not only in serving a district which is already mainly tributary to it, but in conducting the country's relations with the foreign markets, in controlling the gold movement, and in dealing directly with financial Europe at an hour of home or international crisis.

Yet the argument may be pressed too far. Mr. Conant's statement that it would be better to have one powerful regional bank and seven puny ones, rather than eight puny institutions, is sound enough, if any such alternative were probable. But that is scarcely the case. Nor was the argument that a regional bank must overtop, in its capital and resources, the largest private institutions of its district, entirely convincing. The Bank of England's capital is $72,500,000; its deposits, public and private, $225,000,000. But at least two London joint-stock banks far surpass these figures; notably the London City and Midland, with its $114,500,000 paid-up capital and its $459,000,000 accounts current and deposits. When the Bank of France took on its shoulders the task of meeting the world-wide strain of 1907, its paid-up capital and surplus was $45,000,000; that of the Crédit Lyonnais was $75,400,000. The Deutsche Bank at Berlin is in such resources a larger institution than the Reichsbank.

Meanwhile, the testimony before the committee as it moves from place to place, on the question which cities shall possess the regional central banks, has its amusing side. In manner and motive, it is not unlike the presentation of claims by conspicuous individuals for knighthood on the King's birthday, or membership in the French Academy, or a niche in the University's Hall of Fame. The question is not entirely whether banking constituencies would be inadequately served without a regional bank at this or that particular city, but whether it would not be a humiliating slight for the city to be passed over. What would the character of the hearings have been, if conducted in the days when Chicago and St. Louis, Minneapolis and St. Paul, Omaha and Kansas City, were hurling scornful epithets at each other's presumption?

New York may be said, in all frankness, to have played its own part in character. In the delimitation of its district it will doubtless get, and for the purposes of the law it ought to get, a highly important stretch of territory. Yet, taken as a whole, the incidents of this banking legislation, in their relation to New York, have an indisputably humorous aspect, and to the philosophic mind they may possibly explain that mystery baffling to the ordinary New Yorker—why the outside communities do not always love New York.

Before the bill was proposed, the New York banking community insisted, with emphatic warnings, that unless the banking system was reformed immediately (on the general lines later adopted in the bill) calamity was imminent. When the present bill came up, the same community joined in protest against any legislation which should take control of the system from the hands of the banks themselves. This being denied, a campaign of the most extraordinary misrepresentation of the actual provisions of the bill was carried on—proceeding, it must regretfully be admitted, from New York. The campaign broke down; the bill was passed. New York joined in the plaudits, and at once set forth to the official organizers that pretty much all of the commercial East must be allotted to its own exclusive sphere of influence.

This interesting episode proves nothing either for or against the allotment to New York of its proper share in the Federal districts. But, on the other hand, it certainly does not exhibit, on the part of the New York banking community at any rate, precisely that quality which is known in private life as tact. When the new banking system is well under way, New York will perform the important part in it which this city has always performed in the country's financial and commercial progress. Probably Wall Street will then forget about what preceded the introduction of the system, and will wonder at "the interior's" prejudice against New York.

BOOKS OF THE WEEK.

Archiv für Kunstgeschichte. III. Lieferung. Leipzig: E. A. Seemann.

Birmingham, G. A. The Seething Pot. Doran. $1.20 net.

Bond, Francis. English Church Architecture. 2 vols. Oxford University Press.

Bridges, Victor. Another Man's Shoes. Doran. $1.25 net.

Catalogue of the William Loring Andrews Collection of Early Books in the Library of Yale University. New Haven: Yale Univ. Press. $1.50 net.

Classen, E. Vowel Alliteration in the Old Germanic Languages. Longmans.

Coffey, George. The Bronze Age in Ireland. Dublin: Hodges, Figgis & Co.

Colum, Padraic. A Boy in Eirinn. Dutton. $1 net.

Currier, E. R. Type Spacing. J. M. Bowles.

Diplomacia Mexicana. Volumen Tercero. Mexico.

Eddy, Sherwood. The New Era in Asia. Missionary Education Movement. 50 cents.

Fitzmaurice-Kelly, James. The Oxford Book of Spanish Verse. Oxford University Press.

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Griffith, R. C., and White, J. H. Modern Chess Openings. Second edition revised. Longmans. $1 net.
Haverfield, F. Ancient Town-Planning. Oxford University Press.
Heredia's Les Trophées rendered into English by E. R. Taylor. Fifth edition. San Francisco: The Author.
Jackson, Fred. The Third Act. Desmond FitzGerald. $1 net.
Laut, A. C. The New Dawn. Moffat, Yard. $1 net.
Macalister, R. A. S. The Philistines, Their History and Civilization. (Schweich Lectures, 1911.) Oxford University Press.
Mason, A. E. W. The Witness for the Defence. Scribner. $1.30 net.
Moffatt, James. The New Testament: A New Translation. Doran. $1.50 net.
Nicoll, W. R. A Bookman's Letters. Doran. $1.75 net.
Olly, E. N. Kings of Wealth vs. American People. J. S. Ogilvie Pub. Co. $1.
Onions, Oliver. The Story of Louie. Doran. $1.25 net.
Peabody Museum Memoirs. Vol. V. No. 3. A Preliminary Study of the Prehistoric Ruins of Nakum, Gautemala. Cambridge.
Rose-Troup, Frances. The Western Rebellion of 1549. London: Smith, Elder.
Royal Historical Society Transactions. Third Series. Vol. VII. London: The Society.
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Sackett, W. E. Modern Battles of Trenton. Vol. II, From Werts to Wilson. Neale. $3 net.
Scofield, C. I. No Room in the Inn and Other Interpretations: Selections chosen by M. E. Reilly. Oxford Univ. Press. $1.
Stoddard, J. T. The Science of Billiards. Boston: W. A. Butterfield. $1.50 net.
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Tapp, S. C. Sexology of the Bible. Kansas City, Mo.: The Author. $2.
Tomkinson, J. R. Doris: A Mount Holyoke Girl. American Tract Society.
War Department Library. Bibliography of State Participation in the Civil War, 1861-1866. Washington.
Williamson, C. N. and A. M. It Happened in Egypt. Doubleday, Page. $1.35 net.

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